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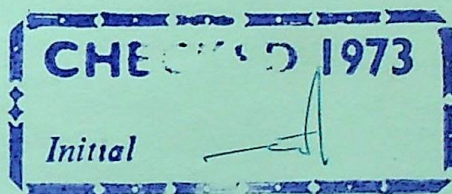
THE HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT WESTMINSTER LONDON.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

BY

SIR FRANK FOX, O.B.E.

AUTHOR OF "OCEANIA" IN THE SAME SERIES, AND OF "AUSTRALIA," "RAMPARTS OF EMPIRE," "FINLAND TODAY," ETC.

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1929

First published in October, 1911; *reprinted,* 1914
Second Edition, thoroughly revised and largely rewritten, 1929

Printed in Great Britain

PREFACE

First published in 1911, now after eighteen years rewritten, this glance at the British Empire has to record many changes—additions to territories under the Flag, developments of constitutional systems, the coming into our Imperial politics of "Mandated Territories"—but has to note no secessions, no violent departures from the harmonious "broadening down from precedent to precedent" of a theory of world policy which is essentially the creation of the British mind: that of the co-operation, without compulsion, of communities with common interests and common affections.

If the reader will turn to pages 40 and 51, which stand in this edition exactly as they were printed in October, 1911, it will be noted that even then the idea was accepted of the Empire as a "federation of partners," as a "ring of British nations girdling the world, each one self-contained and self-governing, all bound together by the filial affection of the younger scions, responding to the confident parental pride of the Mother Country."

It is not my intention to claim credit as a prophet for having forecasted in 1911 what was clearly defined and promulgated in 1926; but rather to stress the fact that the Imperial Conference of 1926, with its

formal " Declaration of Independence " of the several British nations, did not so much mark a " New Era " as Lord Balfour would seem to indicate in his introduction to the printed record of the Right Hon. L. S. Amery's remarkable series of speeches delivered during an Empire tour, 1927-1928.

The " New Era " is the " Old Era " stated more precisely. It did not, as some seem to think, have its origin in the World War. If the position were that the Home Country had offered, or the Dominions had asked for, this development as part of a war-time bargain, such a theory of origin would be tenable. But there was no war-time bargaining between the United Kingdom and the self-governing Dominions. The British peoples in every part of the Empire contributed in such a remarkably equal and just measure to the sacrifices demanded of our race, simply from a spontaneous loyalty and sentiment of unity, and without either pressure or promise from the oldest partner in the British Commonwealth of Nations.

The present relations of the Mother Country with the Dominions represent thus not a sudden war decision, but the final stage of a growth which had begun long before August, 1914, and which in August, 1914, had progressed so far that it would have been possible for any of the Dominions to have withheld its active assistance in the World War if it had wished.

The student of the history of the Empire Overseas can trace back very far the first evidence of the germination of this idea of a Commonwealth of free nations. The successfully maintained claim of some of our Colonies to exclude certain immigrants was one sign. The voluntary help tendered by the Colonies of New South Wales and Victoria at the time

of the Sudan War (St. Paul's has a memorial to commemorate the Australian statesman who sent the first contingent of troops to the aid of the Mother Country from the Overseas Empire) was another sign. Yet another was the voluntary help tendered by the Empire Overseas at the time of the South African War. Clearly the offer, and the acceptance, of voluntary help denies by implication any dependency. The institutions of the Imperial Conference and of the Imperial Defence Committee date back many years; and "conferences" are between equals, not between masters and dependents. In particular, the Imperial Defence Conference of 1908, at which the British Admiralty proposed a plan for independent Dominions' Navies, was significant evidence of the already strong growth of the faith that the British Empire was an alliance rather than a group of subordinate States owing obedience to the Mother Country.

There has been thus no change in the sense of a departure from one line of development to another. The position in the year 1929 represents the normal flow of the stream since the year 1829. At one time a cross-current seemed to seek to cut across that stream in the movement for "Imperial Federation." That aimed to set up a central legislature for the whole Empire. It was quickly recognized to be impracticable, for the time being at least, and things took their natural course towards a Free Union and not a Federation.

What has happened, in effect, is that the British Empire has grown up naturally, healthily, normally, to its present robust constitutional adult age. A recent French observer is confident that it is now on the down-grade, doomed to an early dissolution. Not-so-

recent German observers, before 1914, could see clearly that it was then at death's door, and that its unity was too flimsy to stand the shock of war. One may dare prognosticate that the French observer of to-day will prove to be as much mistaken as the German of fifteen years ago.

* * * * *

This edition of 1929 preserves the plan of that of 1911. The Empire is divided into five groups, and in treating each group there are given impressions of salient features of Empire life, and a very brief summary of the essential facts as to population, area, production, etc. With the help of the coloured illustrations by famous artists, some idea will be given, I trust, of a political organization compared with which the old Roman Empire was not much more than a province.

The "Mandated Territories" which have come under the control and guidance of the British Empire since the World War have been noted in the appendices. The Mandated Territories of the League of Nations, whether under our flag or under foreign flags, represent, in effect, an international effort to emulate the system of the British Empire. The territories of the peoples "who sit in darkness," who are not yet fully fit for self-government, are not to be violently expropriated, but to be safeguarded under the tutelage of some paramount Power until their original owners are trained to accept responsibility for their control.

FRANK FOX.

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SHOWING THE BRITISH EMPIRE.
(BLACK)
MERCATOR'S PROJECTION.

Greenwich
Longitude East of Greenwich
15 0 15 30 45 60 75 90 105 120 135 150 165 180
FRANZ JOSEF LAND
ARCTIC OCEAN
SPITSBERGEN
Greenland Sea
NOVAIA ZEMLIA
NEW SIBERIA
ICELAND
Arctic Circle
SIBERIA
Stockholm
Leningrad
NORWAY
SWEDEN
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SOVIET RUSSIA
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Ceylon
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N. Borneo
Maldive Is.
KENYA COLONY
Nicobar Is.
Gold Coast
BELGIAN CONGO
Zanzibar
STRAIT SETTS.
Br. New Guinea
Ascension I.
NYASSA
MADAGASCAR
St. Helena
S.W. AFRICA PROTECT.
RHODESIA
Cocos Is.
AUSTRALIA
Walfish B.
Mauritius I.
L. Howe Is.
SOUTH AFRICA
NEW ZEALAND
Tristan D'Acunha
Cape Town
Tasmania
SOUTHERN OCEAN
Auckland Is.
Macquarie Is.
Latitude North of Equator
Latitude South of Equator
TIC OCEAN
ENDERBY LAND (unexplored)
WILKES LAND (unexplored)
XI XII I II III IIII V VI VII VIII IX X XI XII
MID-DAY
O'Clock Post Meridiem
MID-NIGHT

THE STANDARD OF THE KING-EMPEROR.

WESTMINSTER CATHEDRAL, LONDON

SECTION I

THE MOTHER LAND

CHAPTER I

THE IMPERIAL CITY

"THE Empire" is to-day first in the serious thoughts of our race. But not always is the thought sound and comprehensive. Some seem to have tendency to forget the heart in anxious care for the limbs, and speak of the greatness of the Empire as of something not merely separable from, but in a vague sense hostile to, the Mother Country. That is not wisdom. In this survey of the Empire, we shall begin, as that Empire began, with the Mother Country, and with her chief city. Thus we may see the Empire first in the monuments of its heroic past, and understand with a fuller comprehension the reasons of its present greatness.

In the pioneering life of the new Dominions overseas there is some tendency to allow the intellectual and sentimental side of patriotism to be smothered in practical things. There is so much of direct and obvious work to be done in subduing the wilderness and building up new homes that sometimes there is not enough prompting to think over the ideals of national life. Not a word should be said against a devotion to

practical things. It is, indeed, by practical work that the Empire is made and maintained. The surest index of the British character is its power to display its sentiment by practical work. There is a story current in the South Seas of three men of excellent intentions wrecked on a Pacific islet. One of them was English; the nationalities of the other two need not be particularized. All three set themselves to improve the condition of the Kanakas, who were gentle savages of engaging manners. At the end of a year one castaway had drawn up for them an excellent set of municipal regulations, dealing with everything, from sanitation to safeguarding the purity of the bread-fruit supply. Another had evolved a political constitution with the most wonderful provisions for securing the liberty of the individual. The Englishman had taught them how to utilize better the natural supply of coco-nuts.

But our care should not be exclusively for practical things. The sentimental, as well as the practical, side of Empire-building should be kept in view, for it is of value in preserving the Empire as a family union, with a definite purpose of civilization and peace. Nothing can better help the sentimental appeal than a study of the storied stones of London.

On a first view the great City of London seems to be just a huge, bustling commercial centre, the narrow cañons of its business quarters almost choked with the torrent of money-seekers; its bank the centre of the

world's capitalism; its Lloyds the director of the shipping of the universe; its Mark Lane the dictator of bread prices to civilization. But, looking deeper, London shows as a shrine of human right, a temple of great causes.

These narrow lanes, now giving reluctant passage to the hurrying stream of clerks, merchants, bankers, brokers, many a time in the past were filled by the citizens fiercely prompt to sweep out to do battle for some good cause, fighting stubbornly, century after century, with cross-bow, bill-hook, and musket, for a Christian and free civilization, keeping alight a beacon for all the world to be guided.

Fleet Street, on the western margin of the City, is more than the noisy home of a hundred and one newspapers. It is the battle-ground where was won the freedom of the Press for all mankind, just as freedom of conscience was won in "the City" towards the east, and the freedom of Parliaments was won within the precincts of Westminster Palace now coming into view as Fleet Street merges into the Strand.

Business London, the home of the greatest banks, the greatest shipping and trading firms, the greatest newspapers of the world, is in its way inspiring. To the practical side of Imperialism it has a big appeal. There is something vastly gratifying in belonging to the Empire, the capital of which is also the capital of the world, the final court of appeal in all decisions of

finance, trade, art, and letters, the centre to which the great people of all the nations look. But far more important to the Empire spirit it is to consider London as the home of the monuments of our race's progress, of man's progress, and to note how closely the two are interlinked. Freedom of conscience, freedom of the Press, freedom of speech—in the campaign for these London was always the centre. It would not be too much to say that they were won for the world chiefly by the citizens of London.

Those citizens of London represented the best of the British spirit, because London to a special degree aimed at the ideal of being the leader of the national life, and did not attempt to become segregated from the rest of the community, as did other capitals of Europe. London, one may often hear now, "is not England," and that is true. One may not claim to know England from a knowledge of its mother city alone, just as one may not claim to know Great Britain without some knowledge of the nations overseas which have sprung from the British stock.

But in a very true sense the London of the past was the heart of England, and remains so to-day. Since the days of Imperial Rome, nineteen centuries ago, there has never been a city which so completely merged itself into the current of the national life. In Paris, in Vienna, in Moscow, in Madrid, in other great European centres, the habits, manners, speech of the capital developed to be so different from those

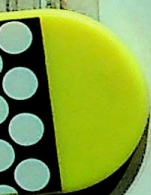
of the provinces that the citizen and the rustic were almost separate peoples. London was always in close touch with the country. It was not in modern times a fortified city, and that has its significance in metaphor as well as in direct fact.

Now that England has spread to Great Britain and Great Britain to the Empire, London still keeps its place as the sympathetic leader of the mighty union of nations. Again an analogy is suggested with Rome. As once all roads led to Rome, now all roads in the Empire lead to London, passing over the trackless oceans safe under the shadow of the Fleet. And coming here, the citizen from overseas feels in no foreign or unfamiliar city. Here are the streets and parks of which he has read since first his childish eyes groped over printed pages; here the originals of the institutions — religious, political, legal — he has so sedulously copied. He recognizes, whether he be from Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, or one of the smaller Crown Colonies, church and statue and building identified with the birth of his particular nation. This he feels is "home," and he revels in its memorials with all the pride of possession. Note him there as, with an air of kind superiority, he instructs some born citizen in the beauties, memories, legends of the city, and learns how great is the force this London has for Imperial kinship.

Very beautiful, too, is this capital of the Empire, beautiful in its medieval spirit. That is what im-

presses one most strongly in London and in England generally—the dominant atmosphere of ancientry. It survives even where, in the old Oxford colleges, electric lights invade rooms of the thirteenth century. In the churches, in the public buildings, in the cottages in the streets, in the customs and habits of the people it is alike noticeable. You hear that London is the greatest commercial city in the world; you find it the greatest repository of old faiths and ideals.

London is unimaginably rich in monuments and memories; steeped in history. Out of the roaring stream of trade grinding through any one of the arteries of the city you may turn aside, and in a few moments be restful among the shades of the august dead in some quiet spot where only memories pass along the pavement. I recall one street in particular, not three minutes from a deafening clatter of motor-buses, waggons, cabs, and the like. It turns out suddenly from a main thoroughfare. Along one side a row of huge elms nod sedate heads over a grey-lichened wall. Little postern gates in places pierce this wall, which is very lofty. Behind it broods some quiet sanctuary. The street itself is usually deserted. I have waited many times expecting to see from the wall a white hand flutter a signal, and in answer thereto a mailed knight come clanging along in full panoply of chivalry; and I shall wait many times yet, for it seems not possible to think that this will not, one night, happen.

ST MARY-LE-STRAND AND BUSH HOUSE, LONDON

The Imperial City

Very carefully does London preserve all the heritage of her past. Modern days and conditions call for new things. The new thing comes, but reverent care is taken to preserve the old. Down a narrow city street, in a quarter still standing as a monument of those good architects of a dead century—the Adams—you may notice an old stone gateway leading to, or from, nowhere. It was once a gate to the Thames, and stands beside the site of the house where Pepys lived. Now the Thames Embankment covers the old mud flats of the river, and the water no longer comes up to the marge of Pepys' house. It was a wise and beautifying improvement, and in my thought more wise and more beautifying because of the care taken to preserve this old gate.

No flood of commerce, be it ever so mighty, is allowed to overwhelm any old church which rears its ghostly tower as a grey *memento mori* in London. The stream of traffic must part, and, washing as it may the sides of the house of prayer, never encroach on its hallowed acre. I do not think that for any reason of convenience at all would London sacrifice one of its old churches : and before a tree can lose its life there is like to be a debate in Parliament and a petition to the Home Secretary.

There is much to love in this spirit of kindly reverence for the past. It is at once proof of dignity and of good-heartedness.

In its street names London shows again a tender

regard for old memories. When the world was younger and London was of about the populousness of Brussels, the Englishman had the wish, which he still preserves, to keep himself sole and private. Then, as now, he would take a corner seat in a public conveyance, because that gave him a wall on one side; and would carefully search for an empty table at an eating-house. This spirit led him to keep his house as secluded as possible, and it seemed to help to this seclusion if it had a street, a place, a square, to itself, or as nearly to itself as might be. Hence a strange multiplication of street names. Every little stretch of street had a title of its own. Now in this monster city, affording dwelling-places to the numbers of a nation, most of these street names have been sedulously preserved. Follow almost any thoroughfare in a direct line, and you will find its name constantly changing. It is still the same street palpably, but every now and again it takes a new name.

In any other city there would be a proposal to sweep away all these confusing street names; to insist on a street keeping to one title for all its course; and to abolish "doubles." In London I do not think any-one has ever dreamed of such an idea. Yet the Post-Office remains the most effective and reliable in the world. It seems to take a delight in grappling with and overcoming the difficulties which are deliberately allowed to remain.

From a window overlooking the Thames, I see at

this moment another picture illustrating the medieval spirit haunting London. Down the river with the falling tide come barges loaded with hay. No modern motive-power gives them way ; they are kept by great oars broadside on to the current, and so sweep slowly to the sea. No doubt in the days when Julius Cæsar camped with the Roman legionaries at Londinium barges with just such cargoes passed adown stream with just such urging. Now the barges, which are of the spirit of Cæsar's time, mingle with the latest wonders in steam tugs and motor-boats. It is again a figure of London's spirit, which embraces the new and yet preserves the old. The city moves forward as a vigorous man eager for progress, but fondly reluctant to cut the ties binding him to his aged parents.

CHAPTER II

THE BRITISH COUNTRY-SIDE : THE BRITISH PEOPLE

Apart from its historical associations, London charms most by the fond sanctuary it gives to the little bits of the country-side which have taken shelter among its crowding streets. The country-side of Britain is probably the most sweetly beautiful in all the world. "Green and cloudy England," to quote the phrase of a character in one of George Meredith's novels, is

bathed generally in a soft and gracious air, which never knows drought nor fierce heat, which rarely feels the sting of cold blizzards in the winter. The earth responds to the soft sky with an eternal carpet of green, starred with daisies and decked with dancing daffodils in the early spring, glowing with roses later, putting on a burnished robe of brown and gold and red for the autumn, and bravely preserving much of the freshness of its meadows through the winter. Even that winter, damp and foggy as it often is, has its charms—the charm of pearl-grey days when sky and atmosphere have a luminous mistiness out of which the silver-point etchings of the bare trees stand sharply.

The country-side, I have said, comes to London and finds sanctuary there, in the great circle of parks.

Nothing could exaggerate the beauty of these parks in spring and summer. The grass lawns—delicately smooth, of a glowing green that seems to be suffused with light, starred with little white daisies, suggest a bright firmament, the emerald sky of a fairy-tale, with daisies to make its Milky Way. The trees are full of their own rustling song, and of the clear soprano notes of crowding birds. The flower-beds flaunt a constantly changing bravery of colour. One day it is a wide-flung glory of daffodils. Before these show a sign of drooping, within a night they have disappeared, and great clumps of other flowers fill their places. These make way in their turn for geraniums in full blossom; they for all sorts of sweet combina-

THE ENGLISH COUNTRY-SIDE.

tions of flowers. All the plants are bedded out in full bloom. The cost must be enormous, but the Londoner pays it cheerfully, and these city parks provide the people with gayer gardens than have any of the great nobles.

For the gardens are the people's. On the dainty grass the children of the poor sprawl and play contentedly. In the ponds and streamlets, beside which, in the old days, kings sauntered, the youngsters of the slums fish with bent pins or scoop with small nets for sticklebacks. There is a delightful social suavity which knows no tyranny, needs none. The rangers are the friends of the people, and you may notice one helping a little kiddie to a patch where daisies might be picked for daisy chains, then guiding another to a good fishing spot.

The bird life is glorious. The trees are all a-twitter with songsters. In the ponds and streams a gorgeous variety of water-fowl display themselves—giant white pelicans, filled with a smug and hypocritical satisfaction at the mistaken reputation they have won for benevolence; black swans from Australia and white swans of Europe; all manner of ducks and geese and teal. Children bring crumbs and feed these birds, and also the pigeons, which, in consequence, reach a bloated size, and are veritable aldermen of the pigeon world.

On the meadows a few sheep are pastured, and help to give a rural air to the landscape. In the larger

parks deer are kept; and there you meet the only "don't" of these places of freedom; the public are asked not to feed the deer, which might suffer from mistaken generosity.

Of most of the provincial cities the same may be said. Even in the black Midlands open spaces are zealously sought; and of late the gospel of the "garden city" is being vigorously preached and industriously practised to make gradually all cities in their residential quarters a mingling of parks and of dwelling-houses. There is an innate love of gardening in the British character. It shows everywhere. In the poorest and most crowded parts of London there are window gardens. In the "potteries," in the crowded industrial centres of Scotland, in the poor cottages of Ireland, you will notice a geranium, or some other flower, carefully tended. Around the great houses the parks and gardens have a suave charm which is surely the most gracious thing in the world.

Around such a house there is usually a broad sweep of parkland, set with trees in a fashion of cunning artistry that gives a sense at once of natural wildness and of ordered grace. Nearer to the dwelling, orchard, wild-garden, walled garden, herb-border, rosery, all set around with lawns, give each their separate delight, and there mingle together to give the eye an impression of harmonious and beautiful landscape.

Very many of the great historic houses of Great

Britain are preserved by their owners in part for the public benefit, and may be visited on occasions by all who care to do so. In some cases a house and its grounds have been set apart definitely as a public park. A fine instance of this near London is Hampton Court, built by the great Cardinal whose "vaulting ambition o'erleapt itself." Used for many years after Wolsey's death as a royal residence, Hampton Court was finally given to the people, with its palace, its pictures, and its great grounds. All are preserved at their best. The gardens are especially fine. The citizen here may be a king for a day in full enjoyment of a great residence.

But, of course, Britain may not be judged only by London and its environs. Within the small compass of the United Kingdom are comprised a dozen different characteristics of climate and scenery. In the south-east the white cliffs which gave to England the name of "Albion" usher in rolling downs, and then the fat orchard fields, sprinkled with hills, of the Kent country. The south-west, which meets the first of the Gulf Stream—that warm current from the Gulf of Mexico which so profoundly modifies the British climate—begins with rugged cliffs, and then is marked by great wild moors. The south-west has a special climate of its own, and its spring is a month earlier than in the rest of the island. But the south-west of Ireland can boast an even earlier spring, and an even softer climate. I have seen orange trees growing in

the open near the Head of Kinsale, and peaches ripen there under glass frames without artificial heat.

In the Midlands of England the climate is a little sharper. Farther north, where the iron and pottery districts are reached, there is frankly ugly country: the sky is generally obscured by a pall of smoke. Then the northern moors, fine, wind-swept, bracing hills of almost savage grandeur, usher in Scotland.

When a hill becomes a "bunk" in the tongue of the people, you may know that you are approaching Scotland. You know that you are north of the Tweed by observing the keenness of the farming and the prosperous neatness of the farmhouses. The farming land approaching Edinburgh from the south clearly is put to the very best use by the thrifty tillers. There are fewer weeds in the south of Scotland than anywhere else in the British islands; especially there are fewer thistles. The Scotch thistles, having found a way out of Scotland, evidently decided on permanent exile.

Notice the thin, the razor-thin, hedges, neat and close-clipped, dividing the landscape with the sharpness of a fine line in a black-and-white drawing. The English hedge straggles over a generous area. The Irish hedge often invades the field which it is its duty to guard. The Scotch hedge has to attend strictly to business, and no vagabonding allowed. It is a sign of the Scotch thrift and carefulness. It will give you an inkling why, in the oversea Dominions of

BRITISH BATTLE CRUISERS

the Empire, the Scot is such a dominant force. "Wherever I found a good thing," said the French wit "Max O'Rell" after a tour of Australia, "I found a Scot sitting down beside it." Of Canada and New Zealand he might have said the same. The business and government of the Empire is very largely in the hands of the branch of our race which comes from Scotland.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, is surely the most beautiful city in the United Kingdom, perched like a proud eagle on its crag, its environs flowing in graceful lines along a wild glen. Edinburgh shows none of the austerity of the Scot of to-day. It blossomed out of that time and phase of the Scottish character when the Court of Holyrood and the Court of Versailles were so intimately friendly. Now it flaunts like a gorgeous rose in a jacket of hodden grey, a city of romance and of splendour, surviving untouched from the days of chivalry.

There is not—there can never be—anything modern about Edinburgh. London in a strange way blends the modern with the ancient. Edinburgh gives an air of incongruity to every evidence of the civilization of to-day that obtrudes. Trains invade its centre, creeping to do so along a narrow gully. But they creep despisedly, and as they go past the great hill of the castle, it looks on them with a grim contempt. The trains are not accepted by Edinburgh as the motor-bus is accepted by London, which, in her large,

motherly way, takes the quaint things to her heart, and treats them as new gargoyles tricking out her Gothic beauty. Edinburgh has with her grace the proud intolerance of the time of Mary Queen of Scots. London is magnificently human, and nothing human is alien to her.

Newspapers are published in Edinburgh—somewhat furtively, and with an air of apology that they are not quartos in morocco. Indeed, evening newspapers are published in Edinburgh, and I have seen them distributed in landaus—the evening newspaper taking its rounds in a carriage-and-pair.

Leaving Edinburgh, Scotland becomes again stern, practical, and neat—above all things neat. I recollect once, entering Glasgow by one of the suburbs, I noticed a row of ten houses—villas is perhaps the better word, for they were somewhat pretentious—each having one " front-room " to the right on the ground-floor, with coffee-coloured curtains decking the windows. Always the coffee-coloured curtains were drawn a little back from the centre, and kept so by being fastened with two bands of ribbon. Always this drawing back of the veil disclosed a little table, and on the little table was always an ornament. The ornaments differed slightly : the colour of the ribbons used for keeping back the curtains varied. Everything else was invariable. The curtains were always coffee-coloured, because that colour could stay away from the laundry for the longest time without offend-

ing the Scottish decency of cleanliness. They were always drawn back because, having a table and an ornament in the front room to the right on the ground-floor, it was proper and seemly to show the passer-by that you were to that degree prosperous. The ribbons, I suppose, varied in colour because Glasgow had no standard of taste as to what shade best suits coffee-coloured curtains.

That row of houses, properly regarded, taught much of the Scottish character—of the Lowlands, at any rate.

The villages of Scotland with their aggressively clean houses, their well-kept farms, their civil and hospitable people, suggest at once charm and efficiency. Efficiency seems always the dominant note of Scotland —that and method. The Scot has a hatred of waste and a love of order. He makes of all of his country that is cultivable an exceedingly trim and well-kept garden—a garden mostly of the kitchen type, rarely blooming excepting in so much degree as is incidental to utility.

Near Glasgow, southward to the English border, is the Robert Burns country. One wonders how that passionate, wild soul bloomed in such a well-ordered country, and then ceases to wonder, as one remembers how many of these hard, practical, thrifty Scots are capable, with proper prompting, of deep tenderness and lavish generosity. Possibly the Scot is really a troubadour frustrated, and setting himself, in a grim

way, to be as different in habit to his real self as he can be, and, of course, succeeding. A Scot always succeeds.

Ireland is a different story altogether : Ireland—dear, lovable Ireland, where the miles are bigger, the acres bigger, the hearts bigger, and the smiles wider than anywhere else in the British Empire. It is the Irishman's part to supply the leaven of poetry and imagination to the British character, and well he fills the part. The Irish scenery and Irish people carry a peculiar charm of their own. The landscape has a touch of wildness that is attractive as a change from the exceedingly well-groomed aspect of England, which suggests too often the child with its clean pinafore and its newly brushed hair got ready for "company." On Ireland's face there is a merry smudge, and its hair is picturesquely untidy.

The southern Irish moors in August, a little wilder even than those of Yorkshire, the patches of purple bell-heather showing like stains of spilt wine ; the fishing villages nestling in little bays behind great bold headlands, which march in pompous procession along the whole coastline ; the long arms of the sea running inland, their savage sides crowned here and there with castle ruins, where old-time chiefs held the water-path and the fishery rights with foot soldier and war-boat ; the gloomy tarns and bogs ; the relics of primitive civilization, more common here than in other parts of Great Britain—all attract eye and mind.

The British Country-side

The frequent ruins give an air of melancholy to the Irish landscape. But it is a tender and attractive melancholy, and is relieved by the signs of the coming of a new prosperity. Ireland has had much unhappiness in her past history. But to-day she takes her part in the Empire with a new cheerfulness and a new hopefulness. Her agrarian troubles are being settled and her depopulation by emigration seems to be ceasing.

Some rare old churches survive in Ireland. A notable one is at Youghal, the Collegiate Church of St. Mary, part of it dating from the eighth century, its oak roof dating back to the tenth century. It is full of memories of old Irish celebrities. Here is the tomb of that famous lady of the House of Desmond, who died most happily at the age of 140 through falling out of a cherry-tree! May the Fates send us at 140 an appetite for cherries, and the agility to climb a cherry-tree, and a broken neck will be no sad end to life!

The sport, too, in Ireland, is most attractive—the hunting and fishing, the shooting of grouse and woodcock—again with a wilder note than in England. The Irishman boasts that within ten miles of Dublin you can catch a trout, shoot a grouse, and hunt a fox. The people enter into the spirit of sport right heartily—a little too heartily perhaps for their material welfare—and one hears all sorts of quaint stories about the sporting enthusiasm. For instance, of a village baker

who kept a pack of hounds, and used to transport them to meets in his bread-cart! The Irish are a broadminded people, and in the interests of sport the people of that village tolerated a touch of doggy flavour in their bread.

Withal, the main attraction of Ireland is in its people, their character curiously commingled of merry roguishness and of gloomy mysticism, of haughty pride and of humble "blarney." The Irishman is always ready, the Irishwoman always eager, for a yarn. There is never any business so urgent but that it cannot wait while a stranger is being obliged with views on any topic, generally expressed in language half poetic, half humorous. There is a town in Ireland which the railway line misses by three miles, and it was proposed to make a small connection to bridge the gap. Evidence being taken pro and con, a townsman opposed the proposal strongly. "But would it not be a great convenience?" said counsel for the line insinuatingly, "when you were in a hurry, to have the railway station right in the town?" "Sir," said the witness promptly, "the late Lord Chesterfield remarked: 'No gentleman is ever in a hurry.'" That is a typical phase of Irish character, shared with the Spanish grandee, never to be in an undignified hurry.

The desire of the people to be obliging is boundless. An old woman of sixty or so at the fair of Dungarvan, to whom I had given a little dole, promptly promised: "I'll buy two candles and offer them up, that you may

get a young and handsome wife." I objected that I was already so provided. She was anxious, however, not to be thwarted in her good intentions. "Sure, though, you may be after wanting another, though far be it from me to wish it. But you never know. Myself I have had four husbands, and I am going, please heaven, to have a fifth!"

Mingled with a merry roguishness in the Irish character is the inclination to luxuriate in grief. Tears are prompt to the people's eyes, and their enjoyment of tears is deliberate and not to be thwarted. An old, very old, couple down on an estate near Kinsale had lost their son, aged sixty-nine. Their mourning was excessive, and they refused to be comforted. "I told you," said the ancient father to the ancient mother, as they rocked together in grief, "I told you you would never rear that boy."

In the dominions, whilst the Scot seems to predominate in business, the Irishman is most prominent in literature and in political life. But the strains in the British blood are getting very thoroughly mixed in those outlying parts of the Empire, and the Canadian or Australian of to-day is mostly a mingling of English, Scottish, and Irish in descent—a comprehensive British type.

The Mother Land

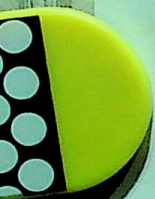
CHAPTER III

THE PROMPTING TO EMPIRE

The British islands have been a vat for the brewing of a strenuous blood. The sea served them "in the office of a wall or as a moat defensive to a house," to keep away all but the most vigorous of invaders. Their own charm and fertility assured that a vigorous invader would become a colonist, and not be satisfied to rob and pass on.

The British peoples—of England, Ireland, and Scotland—at the time of the Roman occupation may be accepted, for the purpose of a brief study of the present British race, as the aboriginals. Probably they were not. In Ireland there are sure indications that at that time there had been already an invading race, probably from the Iberian Peninsula.

The Britons at the time of the Roman occupation were but little advanced in civilization ; but that they were brave and enterprising is shown by the resistance which they were able to offer to the invaders. Only the southern part of Great Britain came actually under the full sway of the Romans. The northern clans of Scotland, the peoples of Wales and Ireland, were never really subdued. In the south the inhabitants, after yielding to superior force, learned very quickly the arts of Roman civilization, and soon Britain was accounted a very valuable portion of the

THE SCOTT MONUMENT, PRINCES STREET, EDINBURGH

Roman Empire. The province, indeed, once asserted its independence of the central government, and, with the aid of sea-power, a British Roman held the islands against the Roman Emperor.

With the decay of the Roman Empire, and the withdrawal of the Roman legions to the defence of Rome, the Romanized Britons were left in a sad plight. Civilization and the growth of riches had made them at once more desirable objects of prey, and less able to resist attack. The province which Rome abandoned was worried on all sides by the incursion of the fierce clans of the north and the west.

A decision, ultimately wise, judged by its happy result, but at the moment disastrous, induced some of the harried Britons to call in to their aid the Norsemen pirates, who at the time, taking advantage of the failing authority of Rome, were swarming out from Scandinavia and from the shores of the Baltic in search of booty. The Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes were willing enough to come to Britain as mercenaries, even more willing to stay as colonists. An Anglo-Saxon wave swept over the greater part of England, and was stopped only by the mountains of Wales or of Scotland. That was the end of the Britons as the chief power in Britain, but they mingled with their conquerors to modify the Anglo-Saxon type with an infusion of Celtic blood. In the mountainous districts the Celtic blood continued to predominate, and does unto this day.

The Anglo-Saxons would have been very content to settle down peacefully on the fat lands which had fallen to them; but the piratical nests from which they themselves had issued still sent forth broods of hungry adventurers, and the invasions of the Danes taught the Anglo-Saxons that what steel had won must be guarded by steel. They learned, too, that any race holding England must rely upon sea-power for peaceful existence. In a book upon the navy of to-day I generalized upon the link between naval growth and Empire growth in Britain:*

"The British navy . . . represents the legacy of knowledge of all ages on the subject of sea-fighting, absorbed and perfected by a maritime people, dominated by an impulse of Empire. That impulse was a most important factor in its development. If the people of England had been insular in ambition as well as in position, the navy would never have been. It required for its creation that Hebraic sentiment of elect nationality which has always influenced the English mind, and which was specially dominant during the Elizabethan epoch. The pride which began by claiming absolute dominion over the 'Narrow Seas' washing British shores, and, that much won, extended its claim to overlordship of all the oceans, was the foundation alike of the British navy and the British Empire, which are inseparably linked.

"The greatest source of strength to the British

* "Ramparts of Empire." By Frank Fox. London: A. & C. Black.

navy always has been its personal tradition. That tradition was founded in the first instance on a national arrogance which gave the Englishman a profound faith in his destiny under Providence, and on a definite national need. The pride of the Englishman made him aggressive, and sent him ranging over the seas for enemies, since he had no land neighbours to invade. The sense of self-preservation of the Englishman made him fight most desperately on sea, because he had the feeling always that it was his 'last ditch.' As early as the thirteenth century there is a record of the truth being recognized that the navy was 'the wall and fence of the kingdom.' "

The last great element in the making of the present British race was the Norman. The Normans were not so much foreigners as might be supposed. The Anglo-Saxons of the day were descendants of the sea-pirates who had settled in Britain and mingled their blood with the British. The Normans were descendants of kindred sea-pirates who had settled in Gaul, and mingled their blood with that of the Gauls and Franks. The two races, Anglo-Saxons and Normans, after a while combined amicably enough, the Anglo-Saxon blood predominating, and the British type was evolved, in part Celtic, in part Danish, in part Anglo-Saxon, in part Norman—a hard-fighting, stubborn, adventurous race, which in its making from such varied elements had learned the value of compromise, and of the common-sense principle of give-

and-take. One can see that it was just the race for the work of exploration and colonization.

Continental expansion was the first ideal of the British people. The Normans during their stay in France had forgotten the arts of the sea, and, whilst Norman influence predominated in British affairs, the ambition of England was to be dominant on the battle-fields of Europe. But that phase passed away. It has its memories to-day in a few scattered posts around the coast of Europe, which still fly our flag, and are preserved because of their value as naval stations. After being foiled in the effort to become a great power on the Continent of Europe, the British race was kept busy for a long subsequent time by internal dissensions. The Tudor dynasty, succeeding, united the nation again, and the proudest era of British history, the era of the great translation of the Bible, of Shakespeare, of Raleigh, and Drake, marked the turning of the people to their true destiny, that of founding an overseas Empire.

We were not the pioneers in that ambition. The Portuguese, the Spaniards, and the Dutch usually blazed the track which we followed. The British man of those days, however, had no doubt at all but that he was chosen by Providence for the government of the earth. The miserable nations of Europe rejected his overlordship, and might perforce be left to wallow in their darkness ; but certainly they were not to be allowed to take his place as the leader of the peoples

of the New World in the paths of civilization. With Government sanction sometimes, at other times with no better warrant than their British faith that the world was their rightful estate, there overflowed from almost every part of England courageous freebooters, who followed in the track of Spaniard, of Portuguese, of Dutch, and of French, and reaped where others had sown.

It would not be possible, with the standard of these days, to justify the method of Empire-making of those times. Too much it savoured of the savage intolerance of the ancient Hebrews in dealing with Moabite and Amalekite, and Philistine. Its foundation was the belief in the British race that it was the Chosen Race. The times, too, were cruel. If there is any comfort in the thought, the British were probably somewhat less cruel than any other of the invading European races which descended upon the New World to plunder fanes, to outrage humanity, to extirpate nations. In the West Indies the gentle Caribs were utterly destroyed, taken in a mass from their homes, and forced to work as slaves in distant mines. But that was not of our doing. In Peru, in Mexico, in the Indies, a savage ruthlessness allowed no obstacle to stand in the way of plunder. Any immunity which a nation was able to gain came as the guerdon of its powers of resistance. The more gentle a people, the more savagely cruel its treatment, as witness the fate of the Caribs aforementioned.

The Mother Land

Our Empire-makers turned their thoughts westward first. Columbus had opened the gates of a new world in his search of a sea route to India. The Spaniard was looting this New World with a thoroughness that knew no pity. The Spaniard was then our national enemy, and hot on his track British pirates, privateers, and a few of more lawful and authorized enemies followed. They had but little thought except to rob the galleons of the Spaniard loaded with the blood-stained treasures of the West Indies, of Mexico, and of Peru. But the necessities of this irregular naval warfare demanded land bases near to the scene of operations. For that reason points in the West Indies were seized, and afterwards—such being the character of our people—stubbornly held; and yet afterwards—such being the good power of our race to learn justice and mercy—preserved for the benefit of their resident peoples, and with no purpose at all of robbery or of exacting tribute.

It would be impossible to follow step by step the acquisition of so much of North America by our race. At one time we shared with the French almost the whole of North America. Our colonies on the mainland had sprung up in most instances through settlements by trading companies formed in England, or through the voluntary exile of bands of British men seeking the religious and civil tolerance denied to them at home. Misfortune lost to our flag that part of North America which now forms the United States.

The Prompting to Empire

In a great measure we were compensated by the gain of Canada from France, a gain which followed seven campaigns, after which we were only allowed to rest in possession on condition of guaranteeing to the French population of Canada the civil and religious rights and privileges which they then enjoyed. Our West Indian Island colonies were mostly the result of piratical effort or more legitimate naval victory.

Our oldest colony in the American group is Newfoundland, discovered by John Cabot in 1497, and definitely colonized early in the seventeenth century, a period very fruitful of colonies for the flag. We are bound now by our acceptance of the "Monroe doctrine" not to add to our territory in America; for by the Monroe doctrine the United States constitutes herself, in a manner, protector of all the lands of America not already under foreign dominion, and declares that she will not allow them to fall under the sway of Powers outside of America. But it may safely be said that in no part of the world now does Britain wish for an extension of her dominions. She is content with the vast heritage which has come from the past, and ambitious only to be allowed to see its peaceful development.

In Africa, though some of our settlements are of very ancient date, the regular establishment of colonies goes no farther back than the date of the French Revolution, when, Holland having yielded to Napoleon, Britain seized her colonies in South Africa. As far

back as the sixteenth century we had trading stations on the West Coast of Africa, but organized colonization dates mostly from the nineteenth century. It was in the search for a maritime route to India that the African coast came under attention. Europe has had a rich trade with India since the earliest days of known history. But it was an overland trade as far as the Levant, and in days when the railway was unknown, and the peoples of the hill country around India were wilder even than now, trade by caravan was uncertain and vastly expensive. The desire for a sea-way to the riches of the Indies sent Columbus west to discover America, and urged Portuguese navigators to creep farther and farther down the coast of Africa, until at last the Cape of Good Hope was rounded, and the way found to the Indian Ocean.

Trading ships founded the South African settlements. The posts on the Guinea Coast had generally a more scandalous reason : they won their first prosperity from the traffic in negro slaves dragged to the West Indies and America to satisfy the greed of men who had already exterminated there one race of natives.

All the South African European settlements, and a goodly proportion of the Guinea Coast settlements fell ultimately into our hands, heritage of the naval supremacy established at the dawn of the nineteenth century.

India, which is now the most considerable possession

DISTANT VIEW OF CARNARVON BAY, WALES

of the British Crown, came to our flag after being under the dominance of the Portuguese, of the French, and, to some extent, of the Dutch. To-day the Dutch hold a considerable remnant of their old Empire in the East India Islands, but Portugal has almost absolutely, and France very largely, disappeared from the scene. We hold almost the whole of India, considerable colonies in the Malay Archipelago, and a string of guardian forts stretching from Aden in the west to Weihaiwei and Hongkong in the east. The conquest of India, involving as it did the quelling of the great Native States, as well as the dispossession of European rivals, one of whom at least (Dupleix) was a foeman of the first order, represents the greatest military feat in our annals.

The Empire's last and happiest extension has been in the South Pacific. There a great continent and several most important groups of islands have been acquired practically without bloodshed.

Now a very brief description of the British Parliamentary system is necessary before going on with our visit to the British Empire, for that system has been faithfully copied, with slight adaptations to local needs, by all the self-governing Dominions.

The British system of government represents the development in accordance with modern democratic thought of a feudal monarchy. The monarch is still theoretically the sole repository of all power in the State, but practically the right of the people to rule

is fully admitted. The basis of government is apparently the royal will, but is actually the popular will expressing itself through the mouth of the King. This state of affairs represents the outcome of a long series of struggles, some of them decided by force of arms, others more peaceable. The King's power was gradually surrounded by more and more restrictions, until to-day his "aye" and "nay" in most matters of State are dictated entirely by his responsible Ministers. He "can do no wrong," the Constitution holds, but for his every action his Ministers are responsible, and can be called upon to pay any penalty which the people's representatives demand—dismissal from office, confiscation of property, imprisonment, or death. Thus, for every evil act done in the King's name, there can be effective punishment.

At intervals of not less than five years, a House of Commons is elected by popular vote. The franchise has been extended from time to time so that now almost every adult has a vote. The House of Commons is assisted in the work of legislation by the House of Lords, an hereditary body, in which every peer of England, and a selection of the peers of Ireland and Scotland, has the right to sit. These peers are in part the descendants of the old feudal lords; in greater part men who have won peerages for themselves by great service to the community, or are the immediate descendants of recently elevated peers.

Legislative measures must pass both Houses of Parliament, but recently, by the passage of the Parliament Act, it was provided that the House of Commons can override a negative of the House of Lords. This Parliament Act was represented to be a temporary measure at the time of its passage, and it was suggested that subsequent legislation would give effective power of revision and delay to the House of Lords, whilst changing its Constitution from an hereditary to a partly or wholly elected basis. But to date all tentative proposals to carry out this intention have been abandoned almost as soon as suggested. The British Parliament remains practically a "one-Chamber" legislature. Only a small proportion of the peers take part in the debates of the House of Lords.

After measures of legislation have passed both Houses of Parliament, they are put before the King for assent. This has never been refused or delayed in recent times.

Parliament, in addition to full control over all legislation, has also full control of the administration of the army, the navy, and the civil service. All matters affecting these services can be discussed in Parliament, and by the simple means of refusing to supply funds for carrying on a particular service, the House of Commons can secure any change it desires in policy or in personnel of the administration. This "power of the purse" the Commons assumed at the

very dawn of our constitutional history, and it has proved the means of securing—generally by peaceful means—the concession of full rights of popular government. Though all taxes are raised in the King's name, they must be approved by the Commons. Though all disbursements are made by the King's officers, not a penny can leave the Treasury without the sanction of the Commons.

So much as to the Mother Country. We shall now pass on to visit the overseas Dominions, considering them in four groups: the American, comprising Canada, Newfoundland, and the West Indies; the African, comprising the Union of South Africa and our possessions on or near the African Continent; the Asian, comprising India and colonies, and forts in and near Asia; the Australasian, comprising Australia, New Zealand, and all the Pacific Islands under our flag. It will thus be seen how we are established on all the continents of the world; and that classification will be roughly consistent with the historical sequence in the growth of the Empire.

A preliminary grouping according to systems of government will, however, be of value. There are several of these systems—from that of the great self-governing Dominions, which are practically independent nations under the British Crown, to that of the purely military control of a fortress such as Weihaiwei in China.

The Prompting to Empire

In the first great group will be the Dominions:
The Dominion of Canada.
The Commonwealth of Australia.
The Dominion of New Zealand.
The Union of South Africa.
The Dominion of Newfoundland.

In all of these the local population is purely autonomous. The great Dominions have lately assumed, without objection on the part of the Mother Country, the right to negotiate treaties with foreign Powers; and this right has been freely exercised by Canada. They were independent signatories to the Treaty of Peace after the World War, and may have their own representatives on the League of Nations. Some of them hold Mandates under the League of Nations.

In the second great group are various Colonies, Protectorates, and Possessions which have not full autonomous power, but which are, as a rule, governed by legislative bodies, in which usually there is provision that a majority of the members shall be officials of the Crown.

The administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. They are commonly known as Crown Colonies. These subdivide into other groups with various constitutional systems.

Finally, there are Territories, such as the Sudan, nominally under the joint control of Great Britain and

Egypt and the Mandated Territories. The machinery of union may be briefly summarized:

1. The Privy Council, which is developing steadily in sympathy with the growth of the Imperial constitutional system. It has become the custom to offer membership of the Privy Council to every Prime Minister of a Dominion. The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council includes judges from the Dominions.

2. The Committee of Imperial Defence deals with supply issues as well as issues of strategy and tactics. The Dominions have the means to know exactly the defence situation of the Empire, and to contribute their share to the stock of common knowledge.

3. The Empire Parliamentary Association, with its journal recording the chief transactions of all the Parliaments, and its organization for the exchange of visits between members of those Parliaments, keeps the various Parliaments in close touch.

4. The Press. There has already grown up a system of close inter-Imperial Press relations. There is hardly a newspaper of the first rank in any part of the Empire which has not on its staff some representative of the other Empire nations. British newspapers have Canadian, Australian, New Zealand, or South African journalists on their staffs; the journals of the Empire Overseas, British journalists. Empire Press Conferences meet in various of the King's Dominions at intervals.

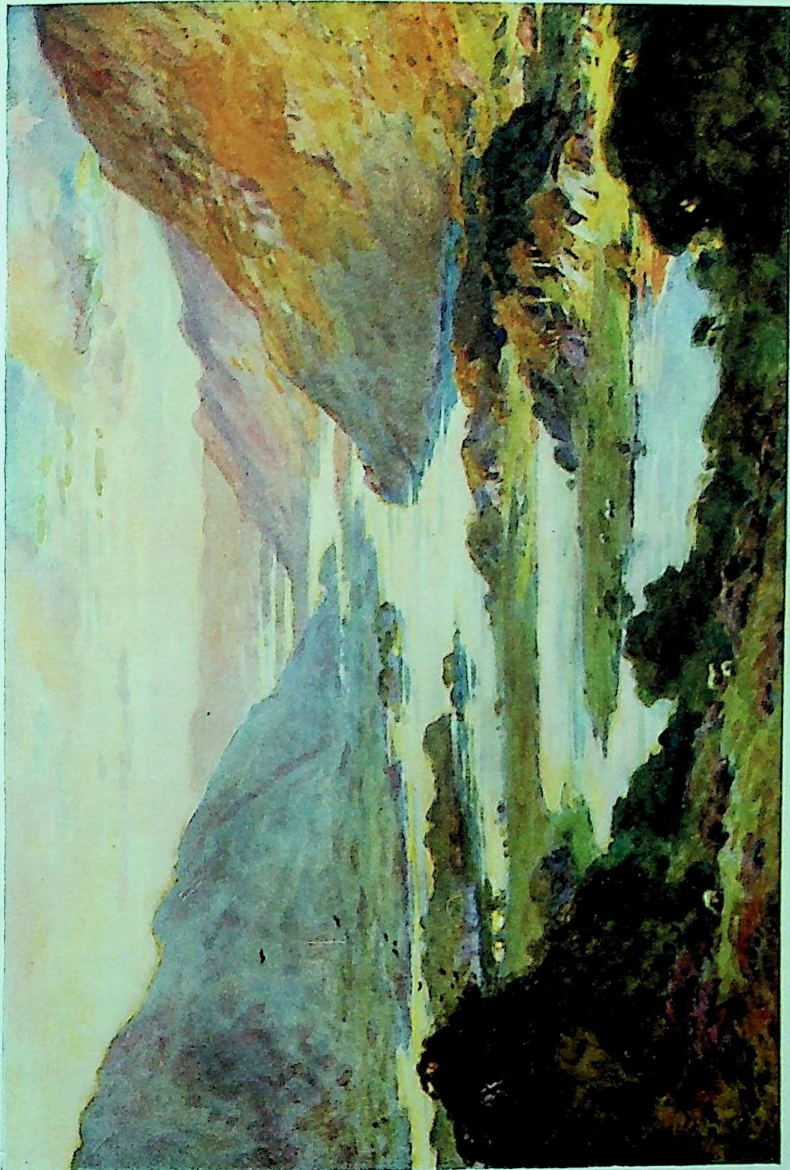
The growth of wireless communication and the

cheapening of cable communications have greatly assisted the Press to develop on Imperial lines. It is now a realizable ideal for a newspaper in any part of the Empire to give its readers day by day a record of all important Imperial events; and it is an ideal steadily kept in view by the more responsible journals.

5. The Imperial Conference. This is the chief organ of Imperial unity in matters of policy. The Imperial Conference has set up what may be called subsidiary Conferences—the Imperial Defence Conference and the Imperial Economic Conference. Already there is a suggestion that representation should be given at its sessions to the Opposition Party as well as the Government Party of the day in each of the British Parliaments. This is an indication of a search for a method by which decisions will tend to win, practically invariably, the assent of the Parliaments represented, without imposing any fetters on those Parliaments.

The link holding all together is the British Crown. In the case of countries inhabited by savage races, their allegiance is direct to the Crown, and through his responsible Ministers in London and his representatives abroad the King-Emperor exercises the powers of a benevolent despot. In the case of Crown Colonies the power of the Crown, acting through the Colonial Office, is sometimes absolutely despotic, sometimes tempered by the admission of representatives of the governed to the Council of government. In the case

of the self-governing Dominions, the representation of the King by a Governor-General, who has the position rather of an ambassador than of a ruler, is the last tie left with the Mother Country, unless account be taken of those bonds of voluntary affection which unite us like members of one family.

There is a tendency, encouraged by the Mother Country, for Possessions and Protectorates to merge into Crown Colonies; for Crown Colonies to pass through successive stages of representative government until they are fitted to be self-governing Colonies, and to manage their own affairs without interference from home; and finally for self-governing Colonies to form Dominions, either by themselves, or by federation among themselves; then they are accepted as partners in the work of Empire, and are encouraged to take under their charge, if so they wish, the Dependencies and Crown Colonies which come within their immediate sphere of influence. The system throughout is dominated by the one idea that the men of British race are as anxious to have full liberties and rights of self-government at the Antipodes as in London, and that that anxiety should be respected.

THE LAKES OF KILLARNEY, IRELAND

The Prompting to Empire

APPENDIX

The Empire in Europe comprises:

Great Britain and Ireland.

A Union under one Parliament of England, Scotland, and Wales; and under the same Crown, but with separate Parliaments, in the Irish Free State and Northern Ireland.

Area.—121,391 square miles. *Population.*—47,000,000.

Climate.—Cold, temperate.

Chief Products.—Agricultural and pastoral; mineral (coal, iron, tin, lead, potter's clay). There are great manufactures of steel, iron, textiles, pottery. In addition, the British Islands win enormous wealth from shipping and commerce.

History.—Anciently the British Isles were inhabited by various Celtic tribes. The Romans came in the first century of the Christian era, and founded a great colony in the south of England. Their sway was never complete over the rest of the islands. On the breaking up of the Roman Empire, the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain, and the Celtic races poured in upon the Romanized Britons. Another invasion was from the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes, sea-pirates of Teutonic stock (fifth century). These Anglo-Saxons became the dominant race in England; but in Scotland, Wales, and Ireland the Celts predominated. In the eleventh century Danish and Norman invasions added other elements to the race stock. By the fifteenth century the present British race was in being, a combination of Celts, Anglo-Saxons, Danes, and Normans. Wales was united to England in 1284, and the eldest son of the monarch has been known since as "the Prince

of Wales," to mark the ancient rights of the Welsh people. Scotland was united to England in 1603 under the one Crown and under the one Parliament in 1707. The dynasty is a union of the old English and Scottish crowns. Ireland was invaded by the Normans in the twelfth century. In 1801 the Irish and English Parliaments were united. Recently Southern Ireland, "The Irish Free State," has been granted Dominion status. Northern Ireland has a separate Parliament with powers resembling those of a State Parliament in the Australian Federation.

Cyprus.

Crown Colony, governed by a Governor, and a Legislative Council.

Area.—3,854 square miles. *Population.*—310,000.

Chief Products.—Oil, wine, silk, fruit, cereals.

Climate.—Temperate.

History.—Stretches back to misty antiquity. But first occupied for the British by Richard Cœur de Lion. After a varied history, in which it fell a prey successively to Arabs, Saracens, Egyptians, and Turks, it was ceded to Britain in 1878.

Gibraltar.

Fortress under the supreme control of a Governor, who is also General in command of the garrison.

Area.—Less than two square miles ; population, exclusive of military, 18,600.

Climate.—Warm, temperate.

History.—Under the dominion of the Moors until the fifteenth century, when it passed into the hands of the Spaniards. Captured by the British forces in 1704, and has remained a British possession since, despite several sieges.

The Prompting to Empire

MALTA.

Self-governing Colony with a Governor and two Houses of Parliament.

Area.—115 square miles (including Gozo Island); population, 212,000 (excluding the British garrison).

Climate.—Warm, temperate.

Chief Products.—Oranges and vegetables.

History.—Colonized by the Phœnicians about B.C. 1519. Fell to the Greeks, then the Carthaginians, the Romans, the Goths, and the Normans. From 1530 was an independent community governed by the Order of the Knights of St. John. In 1798 captured by Napoleon. In 1800 fell into the hands of the British. Granted a constitution in 1921.

SECTION II

THE AMERICAS

CHAPTER I

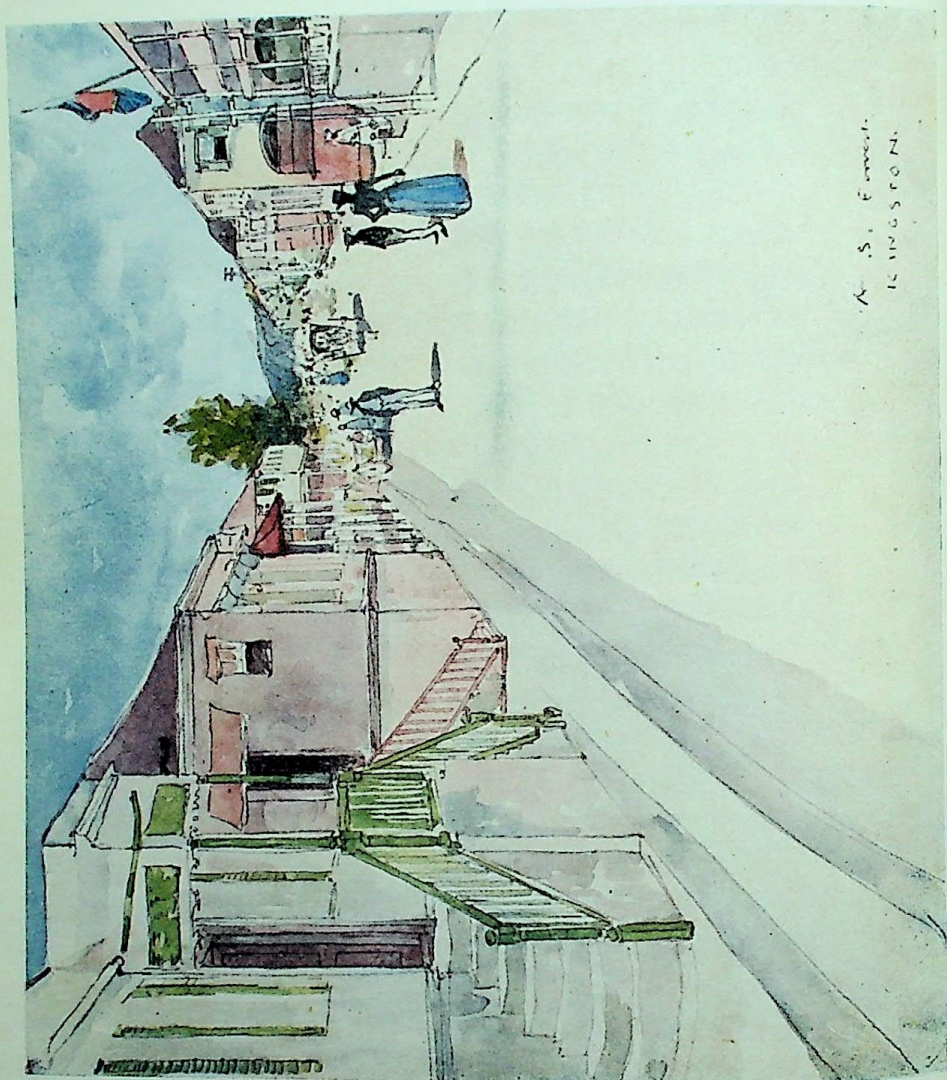
ON THE ROAD TO CANADA

THE American section of the British Empire is to-day so completely overshadowed by the young might of Canada, growing with each year and each month, that it is difficult quite to understand the importance which once was attached to our possessions in the West Indies. To-day the West Indian Islands languish, relying for support mainly upon the supply of early vegetables to the market of the United States, and of fruit to that and the British market. Jamaica is known to most now as the place where the bananas come from, the bananas which were first brought to popular notice by the establishment of regular direct steamer communication between the island and London, and which are now one of the staple fruits of the people of England.

But a century ago the West Indies flourished vastly on the supply of sugar and rum to the Home Country. High protective tariffs in those days kept goods of foreign production out of the United Kingdom, but for the benefit of the Colonies the tariffs were

relaxed, and the British West Indies thus had practically a monopoly of the sugar supply to Britain.

A monument of the wealth of the planters of the early days of the West Indian plantations exists now at Oxford University—the library of All Souls' College, built by a West Indian planter. A variety of causes conspired to strike down the sugar industry in the West Indies. The institution of slavery was abolished, and (as proved also the case in the United States) the negro who had been an industrious slave became lazy and useless as a free labourer. The ambition of Napoleon to make France independent of the products of the hated British Colonies led to the discovery that sugar could be made from beet-roots as well as from sugar-cane. Then a change in the tariff policy of the Home Country threw her markets open free to all the world, to the beet-sugar of Europe on the same terms as the cane-sugar of the West Indies. Finally, the sugar-cane began to be cultivated successfully in other parts of the world, and in Northern Australia and the Islands of Oceania new producers of sugar came forward to compete with the West Indies. All these causes combined to make it impossible for large fortunes to be gained from these ancient Colonies in our days.

But it is satisfactory to think that there is promised a revival of West Indian prosperity from the opening of the Panama Canal. That canal has made a new sea route between Europe, and Asia, and Australia.

A STREET IN KINGSTON, JAMAICA

It will be the way to the Indies of which Columbus dreamed, and without a doubt will be the greatest sea track of the future. With this dawn of a new hope there are some whispers that it would be wise policy to transfer our control of the West Indies to the United States as a more natural protector, and as more directly interested in their trade and industry. May such an idea never come within the range of practical discussion. The ties of sentiment which bind the Mother Country to these possessions should be very strong. In the West Indies our navy learned many of its early lessons. Among these islands Drake, Frobisher, Hawkins, Raleigh, Rodney, Nelson, ranged in search of an enemy to be vanquished; and were sometimes content if they but found the chance to pick a quarrel with a neutral, guilty of the indiscretion, if not the crime, of being a foreigner.

Besides these worthies, some of whom it would have been difficult to classify accurately as pirates, privateers, or patriotic naval commanders, the West Indies were frequented by hordes of marauders about whose character there was not the least doubt whatever—buccaneers and pirates who robbed all and sundry, and cut every throat which came within their reach. Most of us have remembrances from boyhood of the delicious thrills to be won from reading of the exploits of these attractive monsters of iniquity, and would wish the West Indies preserved to our Empire

if only to give us a sense of proprietorship in Captain Kidd and others of his kind.

Whilst waiting for the prosperity which Panama is to bring, the West Indies are beginning, these times, to earn an honest penny from tourists. The North American winter is exceptionally harsh, and it drives many abroad to seek softer skies, and such are to be found with certainty in the islands of the Caribbean Sea. A great number of tourists come also from Britain in the winter season. The islands have beautiful scenery to match their gracious climate, and the transplanted negro population which, since emancipation, has been very little useful, may claim to be in a large degree decorative. These passionate, glowing children of the tropics, naughty children as they are, yet have their attractiveness, and certainly fit in with the palm-trees and the luxuriant flowers.

Imperial policy would seem to suggest that the best outcome of the position in the West Indies would be their definite absorption with Canada. That great white Dominion has at present no tropical dependencies. It can offer a splendid market for the products of warm climates, and is in a position to give those advantages of preference in trade which Great Britain's present policy makes difficult. A combination of the British West Indies into one great colony governed from Ottawa would probably begin a new era of prosperity for these settlements, and would set up a

barrier to the present tendency of drift towards the United States. (There is, at present, an indication of the movement in the direction of closer relations with Canada on the part both of Jamaica and the Bahamas.) It would be, too, a development quite in accordance with the sentiment of the new Imperialism.

The British Empire in its present sense may be said to have only come to conscious existence with this century. Before then Great Britain had Possessions, Dependencies, Colonies, which she governed, or which she allowed to govern themselves, as the circumstances suggested. But there was not that definite and choate idea of Empire which exists to-day—a ring of British nations girdling the world, each one self-contained and self-governing, all bound together by the revered and filial affection of the younger scions, responding to the confident parental pride of the Mother Country. A wise, almost necessary, development of that idea will be a gradual transference from the home authority to the great self-governing Dominions of responsibility for the smaller Colonies, Settlements, and Protectorates under the flag. Thus Canada would control all British America, Australasia—presuming one day a happy union between Australia and New Zealand—all Oceania owning our sway, and South Africa all of the African Continent which is painted red on the map.

It is not difficult to imagine in the near future these

nations, with these responsibilities and these opportunities of development, coming to rival the Mother Country in power and resources. Sentiment would probably always prevent the capital of the Empire being moved from Westminster to Ottawa, Capetown, Auckland, or Sydney, but it is possible to view with nothing but feelings of gratification a British Dominion under one of these cities surpassing the United Kingdom in commercial importance.

However, that is for the future. For the present the West Indies await their destinies. Voyaging from them to Canada, the traveller encounters on the threshold of that Dominion Newfoundland. This, the least considerable in population of the Territories with Dominion status, has had recently an enormous accession of territory by the Privy Council decision that the Labrador Coast belongs to Newfoundland.

It may be safely concluded that the British Government finds the refusal of Newfoundland to join its lot with Canada somewhat embarrassing. But it is not a part of the Imperial system to attempt to exercise any pressure in the matter upon the people of Newfoundland, who, in their present mood, are very resolute to preserve their autonomy, and not at all desirous of becoming a part of the great neighbouring federation. As early as 1504 the hardy and adventurous fishermen of Brittany and Normandy were engaged off the Newfoundland shores. The Basque, Portuguese, and Spanish mariners came closely in

their wake. By-and-by the English fishermen came, at first in small numbers, but increasing until they had outdone their rivals.

Sir Walter Raleigh soon was able to tell Parliament that the Newfoundland fishery was the "stay and support of the West Counties of England." Raleigh dreamt of English colonization in that New World which Columbus had discovered ninety years before. An expedition was despatched under the command of Raleigh's half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and carrying the Royal Charter, the fleet entered the safe harbour of St. John's in August, 1583, and the leader and his men landed to take possession of Britain's first Colony.

But that Colony was not a great success. A later transplanting of population from Ireland in 1634 was more prosperous, and the British race took root. But in the meanwhile the French had established settlements, mainly for fishing, and that link with France has never been broken. The rights to the fisheries have been a constant source of diplomatic trouble since; and to this day they have not been finally and satisfactorily settled. Since 1713, however, there has been no dispute as to the actual possession of Newfoundland, however much other nations have claimed to temper our sovereignty with the assumption on their part of fishing rights on the Newfoundland coast.

The cod fisheries are, of course, the greatest resource

of Newfoundland. But recently the enterprise of the late Lord Northcliffe, proprietor of many newspapers in England, has given a new industry to the island—that of preparation of printing papers from the wood of the great forests. Agriculture, too, begins to make good headway, and the future of a Colony which is proud to boast that it is our "oldest Colony" promises to be very bright.

CHAPTER II

CANADA, THE WEST, AND THE PRAIRIE

CANADA, engrossed as it is to-day in the wheat production of its vast prairie area, and seeing its grain ships crowding the Atlantic, is little conscious that its ultimate greater destiny will probably be on the Pacific Ocean. Yet that may be safely prophesied. It will be through Canada that the Empire will hold the East flank of the Pacific.

At present the Canadian Pacific coast is not the most important part of the Dominion. It is perhaps best known in the east of Canada for its moderate climate. Victoria, on the island of Vancouver, an outpost island of British Columbia, is the place to which good, thrifty Canadians aspire to go before they die. Its climate is the mildest in Canada, snow in the town being comparatively rare. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company, to accommodate tourists and the

retired veterans of finance, who wish to die in comfort, has built a gorgeous hotel palace, which will compare with any in Europe.

Progressive railway development and agricultural policy, and the exploitation of its mineral resources, have lately brought much prosperity to this Western province of Canada. Also, Douglas fir timber from British Columbia is now winning its rightful place in the world's estimation as being the best of its class. A little while ago probably most contractors, even in the British Empire, were inclined to think that it was not quite up to the quality of "pitch pine," a foreign timber. Now they know better. Railway companies favour it for sleepers.

British Columbia unfortunately has troubles with the Asiatic labour problem. The province has been made a depot for Asiatic labour of all sorts for many years, and now contains about 17,000 Japanese, about 15,000 Chinese, and about half that number of Hindoos—mostly hill-tribe men. A check has been put to this influx of late, though the State Legislature has been unsuccessful in getting an Immigration Restriction Act past the veto of the Federal Government. An "understanding" between the Canadian and Japanese Governments allows Japanese citizens full rights of access to Canada, but the Japanese Government undertakes to stop coolie emigration to British Columbia, and whereas at one time the Japanese were arriving at the rate of 1,000 a month,

under the new conditions the arrivals are not 500 a year. The Chinese have had for many years to pay a poll tax of £100 to enter. They continue to enter and pay the tax. Local opinion favours them as the best class of Asiatic worker, and the most desirable as citizens. There is in Vancouver a special Chinese quarter, a section full of very curious alleyways and mysterious underground passages. What is the use of all this mystery is not obvious, for the Chinese seem to be a peaceable lot; they are not interfered with in their gambling games by the police so long as Europeans are not enticed to play. Probably the Chinaman plays the mole and the maze-dweller "just out of cussedness."

The Japanese, too, have their separate quarter, in which they carry on all the businesses of a city. There are Japanese newspapers, banks, lawyers, doctors, shops of all kinds, labour bureaux, and the like. The Japanese patronizes the European for nothing, and lives his national life in British Columbia as he would in Tokio. Japanese have entered largely into the lumber business and the mining industry, and therein, too, practise a jealous segregation. The Japanese mine the ore, and send it in Japanese boats for treatment in Japan. They cut the timber, handle it through their own agencies, and send it to Japan in their own ships' bottoms. The fishing industry the Japanese have captured completely. It is this jealous preservation of his nationalism that makes the Japanese disliked in

ST JOHN'S FROM THE OLD GOLF LINKS

British Columbia. No class speaks well of him; he is known as a truculent and insolent employee, as an undercutting merchant or manufacturer, and as a boycotter of all European undertakings.

Most of the Japanese in British Columbia are married. Families among this race are large, and there is not the least doubt but that the province will always have a big Japanese population, whether it is further recruited from Japan or not. The best the whites can hope for is that, with the help of immigration, they can prevent the Asiatic becoming, by natural increase, the majority of the population. Since it is possible that the future of the Pacific may be decided on racial issues, it is unfortunate that any Asiatic people should have this strong foothold in Western Canada.

"Chinatown" in Vancouver is picturesque if deplorable. The Chinaman has a narrow and fossilized nationalism. Wherever he goes he at once sets up a little China. With steady laboriousness he builds up and destroys until his ideal is attained. Window spaces are filled in, for he does not believe in fresh air or in light; rooms are broken up into cubicles, and very often their height divided by a loft, so that one story becomes two. Still more characteristic, little passages are constructed, with quaint elbows and blocking doors every few yards, for a house, to please the Chinese, must be like a warren. Passages, too, are constructed underground from one house to another.

The Americas

When San Francisco was recently destroyed by earthquake and fire, for the first time the wonderful ramifications of underground Chinatown were exposed. Police officers who had made a life study of the Chinese quarter, and were certain that they knew its every nook and cranny, were obliged to confess that here was quite a city underground that they knew not. In Vancouver, in Sydney, in Melbourne the same conditions rule. There is probably no real need in those cities for the secrecy, for the elaborate preparations for sudden flight, that the mazes above ground and below the earth betoken. But such things are necessary in China, and the exiled Chinaman, to be happy, must recreate his China.

This trait is particularly noticeable when a Chinaman takes over a farm, with a comfortable white man's house all ready for occupation. He brings with him a little colony of his own countrymen. The house of five rooms must shelter ten or twelve men, and then they will use only one room for themselves, devoting the others to use as store-rooms. In this one room they will eat, and sleep, and have their being. Two tiers of bunks around the walls, a long low table, some cooking utensils, opium pipes—that is the furniture. The ceilings and walls are decorated with strings of dried fish, of meat, and of onions. The bunks are used not only for sleeping, but for the storage of vegetables and fruit.

The world-traveller can always make his way to the

PITT MEADOWS, FRASER RIVER, PACIFIC COAST

Chinese quarter of any city if given the slightest indication of its whereabouts. He is guided by that languid, vague smell of Asia—acrid, pervasive, although vague—which seems to be mingled of vegetation growing too rankly, of opium, and of the dead fumes of incense burned to long-since dead gods. Wherever in the world the Chinese gather, there is that same languid smell, whether it be in a city of China or the Chinese suburb of Melbourne, Honolulu, Suva, Vancouver, San Francisco, New York, or London, for everywhere that he goes the Chinaman smokes opium, burns joss sticks, and eats what hesitates between food and garbage.

The Chinaman, despite all his virtues, is not a desirable citizen. He is thrifty, law-abiding (except as regards sanitation), industrious, kind, patient. His opium-smoking has been exaggerated into a vice. As a matter of truth, with most Chinamen it is no more and no less of a bad habit than the average European's alcohol. A few Chinamen over-indulge in opium, just as a few Europeans over-indulge in drink. The average Chinaman is a " moderate smoker," and finds in opium the same little streak of colour shot through the woof of life as the white worker finds in beer or gin.

Yet, with all this said, the Chinaman is not a desirable citizen. Economically, he is undesirable, for he can always undercut the white worker. Socially, he is undesirable, because, for all his good qualities, his outlook on life is so utterly different to that of our

white civilization that he brings a deep taint of degradation to the white people with whom he comes into contact.

Fortunately, the Chinese colony in Western Canada is neither so large nor so likely to be permanent as the Japanese colony. Few of the Chinese settlers are married, and there is therefore but a small up-growth of Chinese children.

You travel from British Columbia—since discussion of the Pacific has led us to consider Canada from the west side—by the excellent railway of the Canadian Pacific Company, which can proudly claim to be the greatest transport organization in the world with its linked steamship and railway services.

According to the guide-books, the Canadian transcontinental route passes through country abounding in wild animals, and when I last passed through I kept a sharp lookout from Vancouver to Ottawa for grizzly bears, wolves, and the like, but without any satisfaction. The wildest creature that I saw was a Nova Scotian who had let a dollar bill fly out of the window.

It was late in May, and the last of the winter in the Selkirks and the Rockies—the two great western mountain ranges which give a precious dower of water to Canada—was full of excited pleasure with its spectacles of glaciers, glittering peaks of snow challenging the clouds and taking the sun's rays, only to fling them back as in scorn ; great chains of frozen lakes ;

and wild cañons filled with some rushing stream, in too much of a hurry to be bound in the prison of ice.

The Canadian Pacific Railway climbs the Selkirks and Rockies by following up the river cañons. Except in a few places the engineering does not seem to have been difficult. A very great and a very progressive organization is the C.P.R. Until the traveller gets far east, he hears of nothing but C.P.R. It is the railway; also, it is the telegraph line; and the tourist bureau; and likewise hotel-keeper in general at the tourist centres.

After crossing the Selkirks and the Rockies, the train starts on the prairie section. There is first the poor prairie, given over to ranching. In April it was a frozen waste. For five other months the same conditions rule. The horses and cattle on the ranches are not, as a rule, housed. In the winter some of them die. If the winter is extra severe, so many die that it would have been more profitable to have housed them. On an average of the years it is best to let them take their chances.

Some of the "poor prairie" country is now being put under irrigation. At Kalgary there is a large irrigation settlement. After the "poor prairie" comes the Manitoba wheat belt, the "good prairie," which is responsible for the chief wheat yield of Canada. Winnipeg is the capital of this section of the country, and its growth within a few years, from a small collection of huts to a great modern city, is

one of the most marvellous of the works of civilization. Mining has often suddenly created a city. Johannesburg, in South Africa, Kalgoorlie and Broken Hill in Australia are examples. But there is always a suggestion of impermanence about a mining city. Winnipeg is built on wheat, and every year a new crop comes to add to its prosperity. Gold and silver are taken away, and the cities which were built upon their proceeds fade to insignificance. The wheat land need never be exhausted, and can continue its contribution to the riches of mankind as long as good culture is maintained.

Winnipeg, with its great newspapers, its palace hotels, its splendid service of electric trains, is not solitary among prairie cities. Everywhere along the wheat belt there are springing up great settlements. Yesterday they were villages, to-day they are towns, to-morrow they will be cities. Into Winnipeg as the chief centre there comes a steady flow of immigrants. They are rich agriculturists from the United States, who have given up land there to reap the better harvests offering here; young British men with modest capital and a hungry desire to get to know the secret of winning wealth from the prairie; poor but hopeful exiles from the middle States of Europe, with not much more capital than their capacity for hard work.

The flood of immigrants never ceases. There seems no limit to the land which can be made available for them. And the world seems to have no limit to its

IN THE MOOSE COUNTRY, LAKE SUPERIOR

appetite for wheat. All this section of Canada begins to wear a mantle of gold with autumn's ripening days. The wheat-land pushes farther and farther north, farmers finding it possible to garner good crops in territories which were once supposed to be too cold for anything but summer pasturage.

It is a life of abounding vigour, this of the middle-west of Canada, setting itself to be the chief producer of "the staff of life" for the world.

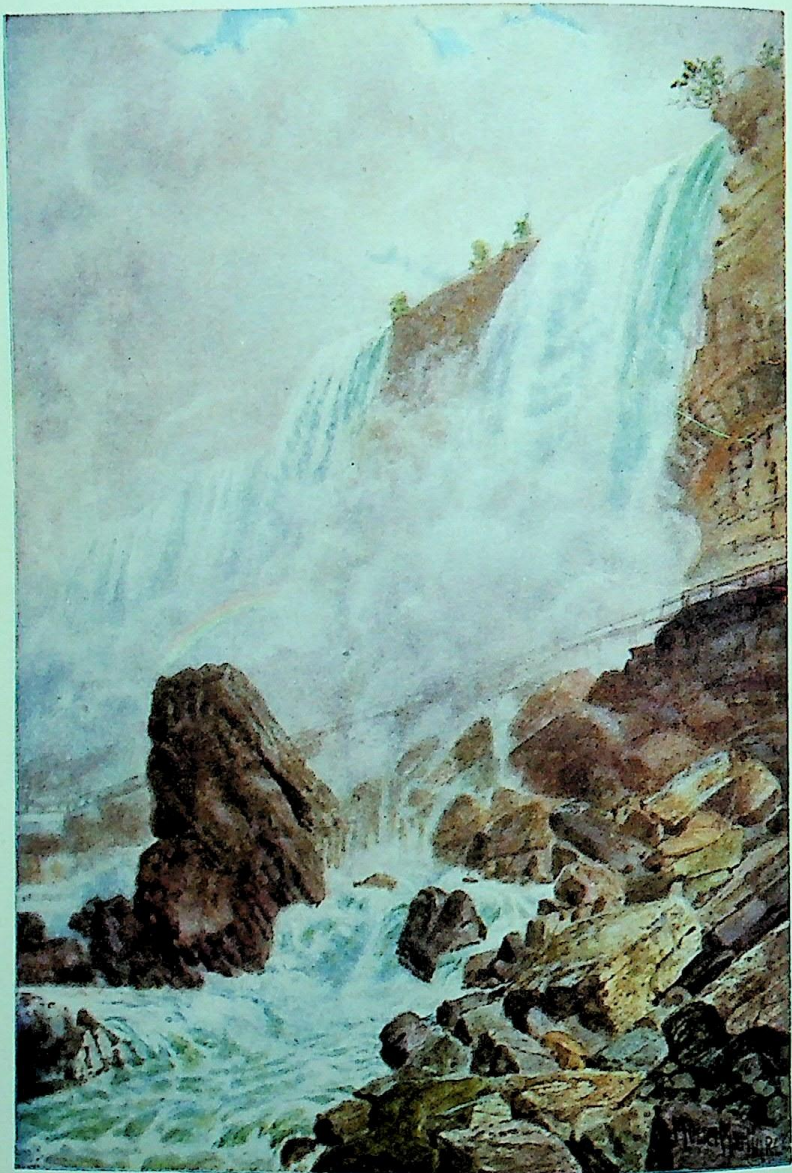
CHAPTER III

THE FRENCH-CANADIAN

CANADA west of the Great Lakes is essentially modern. It was made possible by the railway, and was permeated from the first with a new spirit. But Eastern Canada, still the greater part as regards population, though the West and the Middle-West march to overtake it with giant strides, has, mixed with the civilization of the twentieth century, much of the quaintness and picturesqueness of the Europe of the eighteenth century. The French-Canadian, who is the dominant factor in the population of Eastern Canada, is a Frenchman of the era before the Revolution—a Frenchman without scepticism, and with a belief that twelve children constitute rather a small family and sixteen children a family of reasonable size. The language

of the French-Canadian provinces is of France, but the full churches and the full cradles distinguish them sharply from the France of to-day.

The French-Canadian has, indeed, nothing of modern France in his composition. He is the Breton peasant of a century ago, who has come to a new land, increased and multiplied. (How they increase !) You may search Montreal, the chief French-Canadian city, in vain for any trace of Parisian cookery, of Parisian modes in dress. On the other hand, the French-Canadian does not share the religious indifference of modern European France. He is devoutly attached to his Church, and follows its guidance in all things.

"Loyalty" to Great Britain ; a deep sentimental attachment to France as "the Mother Country" ; a rooted dislike to the United States, founded on the conviction that if Canada fell into Uncle Sam's lap the French-Canadian would lose his language and religious privileges—these are the elements which go to the making of the French-Canadian national character. One might say to the making of the Canadian character without being rashly prophetic. For the French-Canadian has a mortgage on the future of Canada. One Province he already owns ; he is quietly invading the others and dispossessing the British element. When the family of one race is of thirteen children, and the family of the other race is of four children, the issue of racial predominance can only be settled in one way.

NIAGARA FALLS.

The French-Canadian

A French-Canadian editor, whom I saw on a recent visit to Canada, was strong in affirming that the French-Canadian was "loyal," but that the British-Canadian was not. It was the French-Canadian, he claimed, who, in 1812, saved Canada from forcible annexation to the United States by defeating the American forces. It was the French-Canadian who stood out against the wish of the British-Canadians afterwards to be peacefully annexed to the United States. "We are loyal to Canada," he went on. "French-Canadians are Catholics. So we do not want to be a French colony, because France is not Catholic. But France has all our hearts. If France were in danger, we would go to her help. We are loyal to Great Britain, but we are loving to France."

It is one of the most curious elements in our Empire, this great population of a race, alien in language, cherishing fondly its separate nationalism, and yet holding a loyal faith with the British Crown. Since it seems sure that it will be in the future the dominant section of the Canadian population, its character becomes the more worthy of close consideration. For that consideration some knowledge of the history of the French Empire in Canada is necessary.

Happy in the possession to-day of India and of a large section of North America, British people are apt to forget that both in Asia and America we followed in the footsteps of the French. When the voyages of Columbus had disclosed the existence of

the New World, Spanish attention was concentrated on South America, the West Indies, the semi-tropical part of the North American Continent, which is now comprised in Mexico, and an outlying colony stretching up to California on the Pacific coast. The English settlements were scattered along the Atlantic seaboard of what is now the United States; the French colonized in the valley of the Mississippi, and along the course of the great river known as the St. Lawrence. Their design of founding an Empire in America—a "New France"—took the bold form of isolating the seaboard colonies of the British, and effectively occupying all of what is now the Middle-West of the United States, together with Canada, and the country bordering the Gulf of Mexico. That dream was never realized. Canada fell into the hands of the British, the Louisiana sale gave up to the United States, then an infant republic, all the territory around the Mississippi. Finally, French influence was driven out of Mexico. The last survivals of a great ambition are to-day the sentimental attachment which the French-Canadians have for their Mother Country; and the fishing rights on the Newfoundland coast, which are still preserved by France, and which yearly draw away from the Normandy and Brittany sea-coast crews of hardy sailormen, who till the harvest of the sea, and then return to their French homes.

Studying the records of early Canadian colonization by the French, it is difficult to understand why, in

the ultimate issue, power went to the British instead of to the French. Certainly it is not possible to imagine greater courage, more patient endurance, more strenuous enterprise, than was shown by the early founders of New France. If they did not achieve, they at least fully deserved an Empire.

Jacques Cartier and Samuel Champlain were men in whom any nation could take a lofty pride, and whose heroic qualities no makers of our own Empire can be held to surpass. Nor was it a fact that the early French settlers earned blame from blood-guiltiness in dealing with the natives. In the first instance, French and Red Indians got on excellently together, as the fast friendship between the Indian Chief Membertou and the French explorer Poutrincourt, one of the founders of Acadia, showed. At a later period, Champlain made the serious mistake of joining forces with the Canada tribes in warfare against the Iroquois—his records tell of the heart-sickness which came over him when he discovered how his allies treated an Iroquois prisoner—but these "alliances" between white colonists and Red Indian tribes were common enough all over the North American Continent. The responsibility for the loss of the Canadian colonies to France must be held to rest, not with the colonists themselves, who did their part manfully, and even to this day, though under our British flag and loyal subjects of the King, cherish an affection for France, but rather with the home Government in France. An overseas Empire, it has

been repeatedly proved, rests on the maintenance of sea-power. France lost Canada when she failed to keep the sea-track open from Mother Country to colony. In the same way Britain, during a period of weakness at sea, lost the North American colonies which now form the United States.

French colonization of Canada took at first two directions—the province of Acadia, now known as Nova Scotia; and the province of Quebec on the River St. Lawrence. Jacques Cartier, a sailor of St. Malo, was the first explorer of the St. Lawrence. Acadia—an Indian name, not a corruption of Arcadia, though its beauty made it worthy of that title—was colonized in 1604 by an expedition from the Huguenot town of La Rochelle, under the command of Champlain, De Monts, and Poutrincourt. But long before this Canada had been discovered by the English. When Cabot touched upon its coast in 1497, he does not seem, however, to have entertained any thought of annexation or colonization. But when the French, in their effort to build up an Empire in the Americas, began to take effective possession of the Canadas, a tardy English jealousy was aroused. In 1614 the Governor of Virginia, Sir Thomas Dale, sent an expedition to Acadia, and took possession of the French fort. That was the first blow in a long struggle between English and French for supremacy in North America. In 1629—the date of Richelieu's supremacy in France—an incident of a somewhat irregular war between

England and France was the capture, by David Kirk, an English Admiral, of Quebec, the newly-founded capital of "New France"; and the English flag floated over Fort St. Louis. But it was discovered that this capture had been effected after peace had been declared between the two European Powers, and by the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye, Quebec was restored to France.

The growth of the French colonies was now threatened in several directions. From the south danger always threatened from the British colonies. The issues which divided British and French in Europe had been introduced also into America, and kept the two chief groups of colonies in a state of almost constant warfare. Even more serious danger came from the Indians, who had learned the civilized ways of killing without appreciating the civilized habit of mercy to wounded and prisoners.

The Red Indians of Canada proved, when a tradition of war was once established, fierce and warlike. In the parlance of the conquering white race they were also treacherous, though I confess myself to having generally some sympathy with any method of self-defence adopted by savages who find their homes invaded by the white man. What is apt to be called "treachery" is very often but the despairing attempt of an injured man to cope with superior force.

But it is the law of Nature that the weaker race must give way to the stronger when the two come into

conflict. The Red man was doomed in America from the first. It was, however, an altogether deplorable side of the race conflict that the white men of rival nationalities did not hesitate to enlist on one side or the other different tribes of savages. This stained the struggle for supremacy with terrible atrocities. Side by side there fought men, to some of whom the sign of victory was a captured standard, to others the scalp of an enemy torn from his tortured body. The Jesuit missionaries in the French colonies did a great deal to mitigate the asperities of the race conflict, and their influence survives to-day in the strongly religious character of the French Canadians. But right up to the time of the War of American Independence there were incidents of warfare tolerated, if not actually sanctioned, by white commanders, which to-day may only be passed over with a shudder, and an expression of thankfulness that time has obliterated from the common memory of man such happenings of cruelty and hatred.

In the middle of the seventeenth century the French power in Canada was seriously threatened by the Red Indians, who, having learned the use of the white men's arms, and having great superiority in numbers and some superiority in forest craft, were become formidable enemies. The French settlements in 1663 did not muster more than 2,000 people, and were practically confined to the fortified posts of Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers, the rest of the

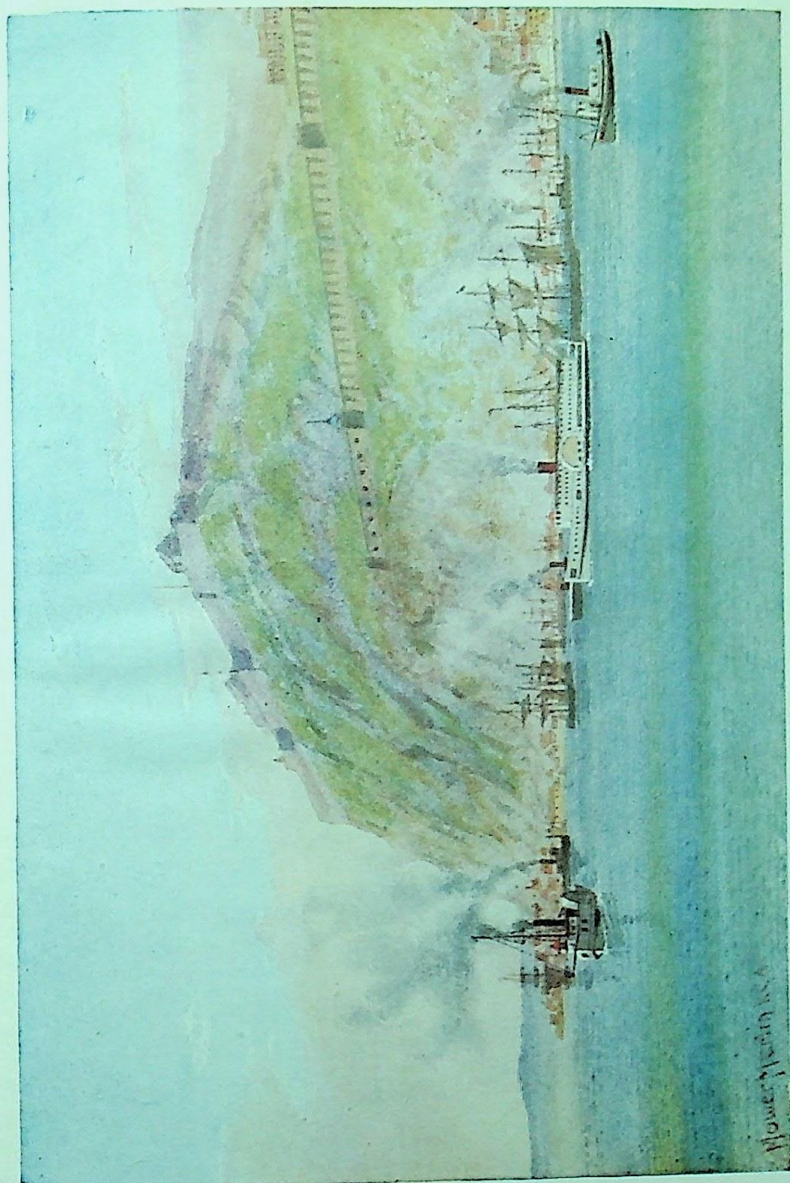
country being held by the Indians. Absolute destruction threatened. A despairing appeal was made to France. Louis XIV. reigned then. He took advice of his Minister, Colbert, and decided to make a bold effort on behalf of New France. The administration of her affairs by a private company (the Company of the Hundred Associates), which had dated back from the time of Richelieu, was ended. New France was declared a Royal Province. The Marquis de Tracy, a great soldier, was sent out at the head of a distinguished regiment of veterans, and with the soldiers went out settlers, administrators, and a number of young women, to become the wives of the colonists. A well-considered attempt was made to found a nation.

Canada now entered upon a new era. In France the King and his Minister, Colbert, were keenly interested in the new royal province. At Quebec Jean Baptiste Talon proved a great Governor, and by his side always was an able and ambitious priest, Monseigneur Laval, whose religious enthusiasm became a powerful force in the extension of the French power in America. In one particular respect Laval's powerful influence was exercised with the best of results. He was always a good friend of the Indian tribes, and sought, with some success, to prevent their corruption and destruction by the "fire-water" of the white men.

The Government of the French province, under

the new régime, was strictly paternal. The colonists were allowed no self-governing rights: a regular feudal system was set up, and the land divided into seignories, whose vassals were known as "habitants," a name which still survives. In all things the Governor and the Bishop exercised a sway. Wives were brought from France for the habitants, early marriages and large families encouraged, and religious orthodoxy carefully safeguarded.

The French Canada of to-day shows the enduring nature of the lessons which Talon and Laval then inculcated. With the growth of modern thought the feudal system has passed away, and the habitants are independent farmers instead of vassals to a seigneur. But in all other things they are the same as their forefathers of the seventeenth century. When Canada passed into the hands of the English, it had to be recognized that there was no hope of holding the country on any terms antagonistic to the habitants and their firmly-fixed principles of life. In regard to religion, to education, to marriage, and many other things, the old Roman Catholic ecclesiatical influence was preserved, and continues practically undiminished to this day.

This hierarchical despotism of the middle of the seventeenth century seems to have suited the conditions of Canada excellently, for there began at once an era of expansion and exploration which stretched French influence far out in the West beyond the chain of

THE CITADEL, QUEBEC.

the Great Lakes and down the course of the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. The priest seeking to extend his religion, the trapper eager for a new source of fur supply, the adventurous young man anxious only for adventure and for an escape from the rigid paternalism of the settled colony, were the forerunners of settlement. Father Marquette, Nicholas Perrot, Daniel Duluth, Louis Jolliet, were typical pioneers of this epoch, and their characters ranged from that of the exalted religious enthusiasm of the priest to the " bush-ranging " of the adventurer Duluth. Jolliet and Marquette were the first discoverers of the Mississippi, which event has been sung by a French-Canadian poet :

La Decouverte du Mississippi.

Jolliet ! Jolliet ! quel spectacle féerique
Dut frapper ton regard, quand ta nef historique,
Bondit sur les flots d'or du grand pleuve inconnu :
Quel éclair triomphant, à cet instant de fièvre,
Dut resplendir sur ton front nu ? . . .

Le voyez-vous lá-bas, debout comme un prophéte,
L'œil tout illuminé d'audace satisfaite,
La main tendue au loin vers l'Occident bronzé,
Prendre possession de ce domaine immense,
Au nom du Dieu vivant, au nom roi de France,
Et du monde civilisé ? . . .

Puis, bercé par la houle, et bercé par ses rêves,
L'oreille ouverte aux bruits harmonieux des grèves,
Humant l'acré parfum des grands bois odorants,
Rasant les îlots verts et les dunes d'opale,
De méandre en méandre au fil l'onde pâle,
Suivre le cours des flots errants. . . .

A son aspect, du sein des flottantes ramures,
Montait comme un concert de chants et de murmures ;
Des vols d'oiseaux marins s'éle vaient des roseaux,
Et, pour montrer la route à la pirogue frêle,
S'enfuyaient en avant, traînant leur ombre grêle
Dans le pli lumineux des eaux.

Et, pendant qu'il allait voguant à la dérive,
On aurait dit qu'au lion, les arbres de la rive,
En arceaux parfumés penchés sur son chemin,
Saluaient le héros dont l'énergique audace
Venait d'inscrire encore le nom de notre race
Aux fastes de l'esprit humain.

A translation by Mr. W. Wilfrid Campbell, an English-Canadian, keeps much of the spirit of the original.

THE DISCOVERY OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

O Jolliet, what splendid faery dream
Met thy regard, when on that mighty stream,
Bursting upon its lonely unknown flow,
Thy keel historic cleft its golden tide ?
Blossomed thy lip with what stern smile of pride ?
What conquering light shone on thy lofty brow ?

Behold him there, a prophet, lifted high,
Heart-satisfied, with bold, illumined eye,
His hand outstretched toward the sunset furled,
Taking possession of this domain immense,
In the name of the living God, in the name of the King of
France,
And the mighty modern world.

Rocked by the tides, wrapt in his glorious moods,
Breathing perfumes of lofty odorous woods,
Ears opened to the shores' harmonious tunes,
Following in their dreams and voices mellow,
To wander and wander in the thread of the pale billow,
Past islands hushed and opalescent dunes.

The French-Canadian

Lo, as he comes, from out the wavy boughs,
A rising concert of murmurous song upflows,
Of winging sea-fowl lifting from the reeds ;
Pointing the route to his swift-dropping blade,
Then skimming before, tracing their slender shade
In luminous foldings of the watery meads.

And as he journeys, drifting with its flow,
The forests lifting their glad roofs aglow,
In perfumed arches o'er his keel's swift swell,
Salute the hero, whose undaunted soul
Had graved anew *La France* on that proud scroll
Of human genius, bright, imperishable.

Robert Cavalier, a native of Rouen, carried on the work of Jolliet and Marquette, and was the first to follow the course of the Mississippi to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico (1682). Thus the French province of Louisiana had its foundation. By 1690 France straddled the North American Continent from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. In that year the French Canadian Governor, Count de Frontenac, following the course of the war which William of Orange, King of Great Britain, had declared upon France, made an attack upon the British American colonies. That was the beginning of an atrocious war of cruel reprisals, in which Indian savages were freely used on both sides. The French ravaged the British colonies ; the British replied by destroying Acadia. A great attack on Quebec failed, and Frontenac then turned the tide of war completely in favour of the French.

I do not propose to follow the course of historical

events from 1690 to the final loss of Canada by the French. The purpose of this chapter has been explanatory of the French-Canadian rather than historical. It will be seen that his origins were heroic; that he was trained in a hard school of endurance and courage; that the religious tenacity which he shows to-day is a natural hereditament from ancestors who owed much to the Roman Catholic Church, and who were severely drilled in its discipline.

In 1763, after the capture of Quebec by General Wolfe, all Canada came under the British Crown. When the War of American Independence set the white population of North America again into conflict, the Canadian provinces remained loyal to our flag.

From 1763 to 1774 Canada was governed by military authority; then a nominee council was established by Act of the Parliament of Great Britain. By the same Act the Roman Catholics were ensured the free exercise of their religion, and the clergy were declared entitled to receive their accustomed dues and rights. In the French province of Quebec to this day Roman Catholic ecclesiastical law rules in some things.

In 1791 a British Act of Parliament was passed dividing Canada into two provinces—Upper Canada (now Ontario), and Lower Canada (now Quebec), and establishing a constitution for each. The Legislative authority was vested in a Legislative Council

appointed by the Crown, and in a House of Assembly elected by the inhabitants; the Lower Province was under a Governor, whilst the Upper was under a Lieutenant-Governor.

Both the Houses of Assembly thus created, and especially that of Lower Canada, were in constant conflict with the Executive Government from the end of the American War in 1814 until the Canadian Rebellion of 1837-38. That trouble was caused by Governor after Governor attempting to rule by the aid of Executive Councils not possessing the confidence of the Provincial Assemblies. The rebels were suppressed with very little difficulty. Afterwards the constitution of Lower Canada was suspended, and Lord Durham was sent out from England as Governor-General, with special powers and instructions to report on the affairs of the country. He recommended a union of the provinces, and foreshadowed the larger confederation which has since been adopted. In accordance with Lord Durham's recommendation, the two provinces were reunited, and the legislative bodies consolidated. In 1867 the present Dominion of Canada was formed by a union into which all the North American possessions of the British Crown, except Newfoundland, ultimately entered.

The French-Canadian was the backbone of the British Power on the North American Continent, in the War of American Independence. Had it not been for these children of France, then very recently come

under our flag, the whole of North America would have been incorporated in the republic of the United States. Since that time the French-Canadian has proved again and again the firmness of his loyalty; and in the field of battle, and at the council table he has resisted attempts to absorb the Canadian provinces in the government of the Southern Republic. His reason, I judge, has not been so much love of England (for his love of France is greater) as a respect for England and a practical recognition of the fact that under the British flag his civil and religious rights and privileges are more secure than would be possible under any other conditions. He is a loyal British subject, though he refuses to speak the English tongue, because he wishes to preserve his French-Canadian nationality.

APPENDIX

The details of the American section of the Empire are as follows:

Canada.

The Dominion of Canada is a federation of provinces, and is governed by a Governor-General, a Senate, and a House of Commons. The Senate is nominated by the Crown, the House of Commons elected by the people. The provinces have left to them right of government in local matters, but the Acts of the Provincial Parliaments may be vetoed by the Federal Governor-General.

Area.—3,684,723 square miles; population 8,788,000.

The French-Canadian

Chief Products.—Wheat and other farm and ranch products, printing paper, fish, furs, coal, gold, cobalt, manufactures.

Climate.—From temperate to subarctic.

History.—First discovered by Norse seamen. Cabot landed on the coast of Canada in 1497. In 1535 the French colonized Canada. There were several wars before the British were recognized as the controllers of Canada in 1763. In 1867 the chief provinces of Canada united in a federation. Subsequently other provinces joined in, and to-day the whole of British North America, except Newfoundland, is under the authority of the Canadian Parliament.

Newfoundland.

A self-governing Dominion under responsible government. There is a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly.

Area.—154,000 square miles; population 266,000.

Climate.—Cold, temperate.

Chief Products. — Fish, wood-pulp for printing paper, copper, and timber.

History.—Discovered by John Cabot 1497. Sir Walter Raleigh attempted its colonization. In 1634 colonized from Ireland. French settled on the island in 1620. In 1713 Repossession of Newfoundland confirmed to the British. Responsible government granted in 1855.

The Bahamas.

Governed as a Crown Colony by a Governor, a Legislative Council, nominated by the Crown, and a Legislative Assembly elected on a small property qualification.

Area.—4,466 square miles; population (mostly negroes), 59,000.

Chief Products.—Pineapples, oranges, and sponges. Cotton and sisal hemp are also grown.

Climate.—Subtropical, salubrious.

History.—Discovered by Columbus in 1492, the first land touched at on that voyage. The Spaniards transported all the natives (Caribs) to Cuba to work in the mines there. Islands colonized in 1646 by British settlers. In 1718 Britain annexed the group. In 1781 the Bahamas were given over to the Spaniards, but in 1783 the British resumed possession.

Barbados.

Governed as a Crown Colony. It has a representative Parliament of two Houses, but not responsible government, as the Home country appoints and controls most of the public officials.

Area.—About 166 square miles; population, 170,000.

Chief Products.—Sugar and cotton.

Climate.—Subtropical.

History.—First discovered by Portuguese navigators. Taken possession of by the English in 1605. Won to a good population through English Royalists settling there after the execution of Charles I. Has always been a possession of Great Britain, unlike most of the West Indian colonies.

The Bermudas.

Crown Colony ruled by a Governor and two Houses of Parliament.

Area.—About nineteen square miles; population, 30,000.

Chief Products. — Early vegetables for the New York markets.

Climate.—Subtropical.

History. — Discovered in 1515 by a Spanish navigator, Juan Bermudez. Colonized by the British in the reign of James I.

British Guiana.

Crown Colony governed by a Governor, a Court of Policy, and a Combined Court. The Court of Policy answers to an Upper House of Parliament; the Combined Court consists of the Court of Policy with financial members added, and has the power of the purse.

Area.—90,277 square miles; population, 297,000.

Chief Products.—Sugar, coffee, cocoa, rare woods, rubber, gold, diamonds.

Climate.—Tropical.

History.—First settled in 1616 by the Dutch West India Company. The first British settlement was in 1604. After falling under the control of various nations, this portion of Guiana finally became British in 1814.

British Honduras.

Crown Colony governed under British laws, subject to modification of local ordinances, by a Governor and Executive Council.

Area.—8,598 square miles; population, 45,000.

Chief Products.—Mahogany and other valuable woods.

Climate.—Tropical.

History.—First settled from Jamaica by timber-getters. In 1739 ceded to Great Britain by the King of the Mosquito Coast. Sovereignty of Britain disputed by Spain, but the territory held successfully for Britain by the settlers.

Jamaica.

Crown Colony governed by a Governor and two Houses of Parliament. There is also a Privy Council.

Area.—4,200 square miles; population, 858,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Bananas, sugar, coffee, cocoa, spices, and valuable woods.

History.—Discovered by Columbus May 3, 1494. Captured by the British in Cromwell's time (May 11, 1655). Was the headquarters of the pirates of the Caribbean Sea. Slavery abolished in 1833. Serious rebellion of the black population (the inhabitants are mostly the descendants of African negroes imported as slaves) in 1865.

Dependencies of Jamaica are the Turks and Caicos Islands. *Area:* 169 square miles; population, 5,000.

Falkland Islands.

Crown Colony governed by Governor and a Legislative Council.

Area.—With its South Polar dependencies, 3,100,000 square miles; population, 4,136.

Chief Products.—Wool and tallow.

Climate.—Cold.

History.—Discovered in 1592 by the British. Annexed by France in 1764. Later, fell into the hands of the Spaniards. Then came under control of Republic of Buenos Ayres. Finally came under the British flag in 1832. Scene of a great sea battle of the World War.

Leeward Islands.

Crown Colony, governed by Governor and Legislative Council, which is a Federal Parliament, for the chief islands of the group have also their Legislative Councils.

Area.—704 square miles; population, 122,000.

Climate.—Subtropical.

Chief products.—Sugar, cotton, tobacco, lime-juice.

History.—Discovered by Columbus on his second voyage, 1493. Captured by the British in the seventeenth century. In 1871 the various islands were united under one legislature as a Federated Crown Colony. Chief islands: Antigua, St. Christopher, and Nevis; Dominica, Montserrat, and the Virgin group.

Trinidad and Tobago.

Two West India islands united as a Crown Colony under a Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—About 2,000 square miles; population, 366,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Sugar, cocoa, asphalt, copra.

History.—Discovered by Columbus in 1498. Visited by Sir Walter Raleigh, 1595. Raided in turn by Dutch and French. Captured by Britain, 1797. Ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Amiens, 1802.

Windward Islands.

A loose federation of the Islands of St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Grenada, with the Grenadines group. There is one Governor for all the Windward Islands, but otherwise there is little trace of union.

Area.—524 square miles; population, 162,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Cocoa and spices.

History.—Discovered by Columbus, 1498. Held for a time by France. Conquered by Britain during the eighteenth century.

SECTION III

AFRICA

CHAPTER I

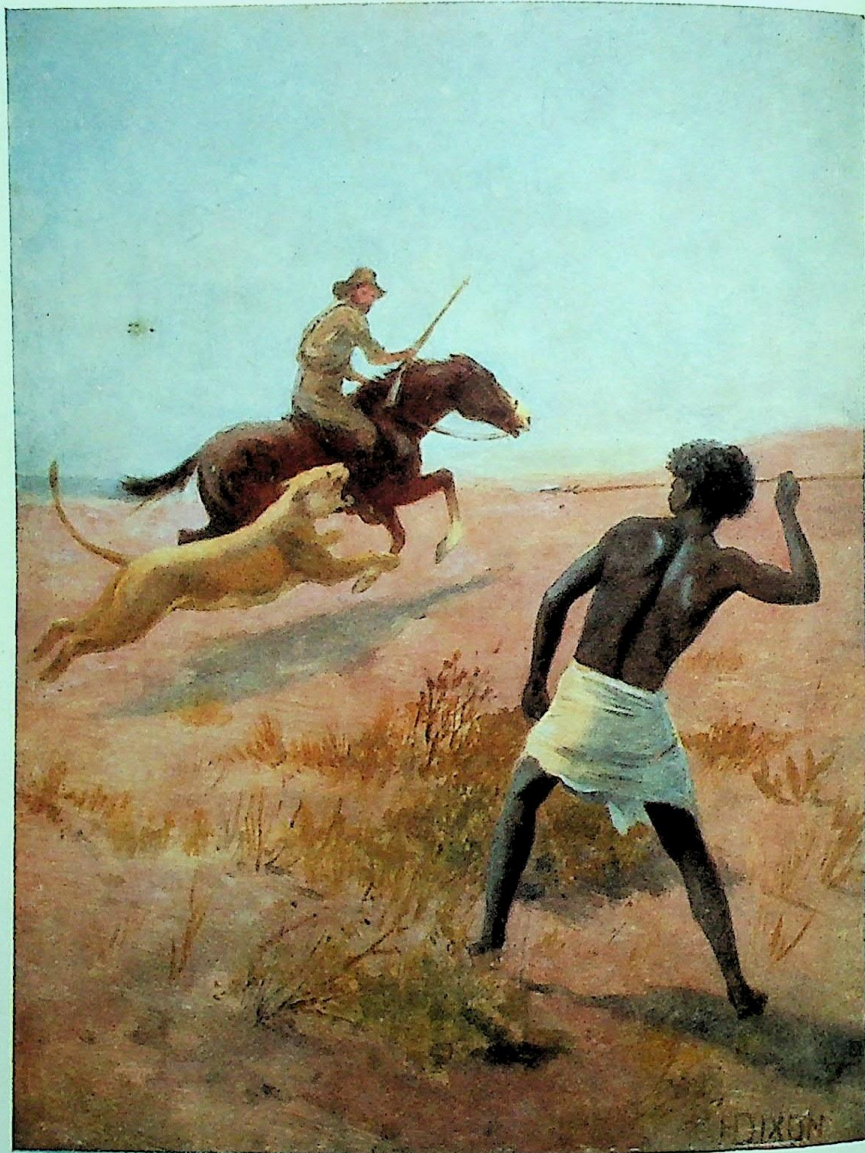
THE FIRST SEA-ROUTE TO INDIA

WAYFARING to India established our Empire in Africa and in various islands along the African coast, such as Ascension and St. Helena. The old sea-route to India by the Cape of Good Hope gave the prompting to have posts in South Africa. The new and shorter sea-route opened up by the construction of the Suez Canal gave later prompting to assume a Suzerainty of Egypt, and the protection of Egypt from the wild tribes of the Sudan has led the British arms farther and farther south, until to-day almost the whole length of Africa, from north to south, is traversed by a band of territory under British influence; and a British railway from the Cape of Good Hope to Cairo and Alexandria on the delta of the Nile progresses quickly to completion.

There is nothing more dramatic in the history of civilization than the rapid penetration of the African Continent by the British. What was a few years ago "Darkest Africa," and the darkest area of the world, is now open to the tourist, and an international sculling championship has been decided on the Zambesi River between a New Zealander and an Englishman.

Africa

The Cape-to-Cairo Railway we owe to the imaginative Imperialism of Cecil Rhodes. It has already pushed a path of civilization right up to the Great Lakes, conquering many engineering difficulties and withal some strange obstacles, such as the infestion of the track by hungry lions. The nature of the country was described to me a couple of years ago by Mr. Wenzel Greninger, one of the construction engineers, who is known in the wilds of Central Africa as a railway man, as a controller of negro coolies, and as a hunter of big game. He spoke of the great shooting—elephants, hippopotami, lions, crocodiles, leopards, zebra, boars, all sorts of deer and wild oxen. "There was talk, the other day," he added, "of the British Government being moved to exterminate all the big game with a view to getting rid of the tsetse fly, which, it is now said, causes sleeping sickness, a most deadly disease among the natives. The big game animals are said to be the intermediary hosts for the flies which cause sleeping sickness; and with the end of them would come an end to the ravages of the disease. But I doubt whether the proposal will be seriously entertained. For one thing, the connection between the big game and the fly is not conclusively established. For another, big game is a rare thing on earth now, and in Central Africa the natives are not a bit rare. But if a tsetse fly had bitten an ex-President of the United States!"

A very interesting insight into the life of the British

A LION HUNT IN CENTRAL AFRICA.

possessions in Central Africa this young railway engineer gave me.

"In Central Africa," he said, "you have to be known as 'the angry white man' if you want to get any good out of the coolies. I know, for I have recruited thousands of them for the railway works, and have never had any trouble with my gangs. Be stern and prompt in punishment, but just, and you are all right. But you have to keep up a stern attitude, or there will be trouble.

"We have no labour troubles on the Cape-to-Cairo Railway construction. The coolies are paid four shillings a month when working in their own tribal territory; when they are taken away from their own districts, and have to 'board out,' they get an extra shilling a month as food money. The native can easily live on a halfpenny a day in those quarters. Bearers for hunting expeditions can be got for their food alone, or a little 'trade' in cloth or beads. The negroes like working for hunters. It means that they get big game meat. Ordinarily they do not get any meat, for the Government will not allow the natives to kill big game.

"As to climate, with care there is no real danger. I have kept my health very well so far. There are a few strict cautions to be observed. Never sleep, or eat, or rest without a mosquito covering. For the night camp, for the tiffin, for the noonday siesta alike, you must have your nets put up, otherwise the

fly and the malarial mosquito will attack you, and serious illness results. Sleeping sickness does not commonly attack white people, but malaria draws no colour line ; indeed, it seems to prefer white men.

" The man who takes much whisky in Central Africa runs great perils. Step over the line just once in the matter of whisky, go out in the midday sun while the fumes of the spirit are in your head, and a funeral follows shortly after. It is best to drink a thin, light wine. In my camp there are eight white men, and we all drink claret.

" Our system is to work from the earliest dawn until noon, then rest until four o'clock. After four o'clock we have amusement of a more or less strenuous type—a little hunting if game is wanted for meat or lions are prowling round ; otherwise, lawn-tennis. One must take exercise to keep fit in that climate, and one must rest during the midday hours.

" There is, to my mind, no real danger in big game shooting if you can keep your nerve and shoot straight. For the negro beaters it is different, of course ; but even they are seldom hurt or killed. Without exception, the crocodile is to my mind the most dangerous animal there.

" As to negroes, they have a most profound veneration for the white man. As long as he keeps them at worshipping distance they are all right. I have never heard of attacks on white men in our district.

" The manner and customs of the tribes are in-

teresting. Polygamy is, of course, general; but outside of that a very rigid code of morals is maintained. Adultery is punished by death, the woman being compelled to take a cup of poison-brew, and the male offender having to fight to the death with the wronged husband. The poison-brew is made of strophanthus, a plant from which a valuable drug is obtained, equivalent in action to digitalis. It has the effect in large doses of paralyzing the heart.

"When any charge of crime is made against a native by another, the trial is by ordeal. Both accuser and accused go before the witch-doctor, or medicine-man, of the tribe, who prepares for them each a bowl of poison-brew. Each must drink. The one who dies first was in the wrong. If both die they were both wrong. Probably the native is, in some cases, clever enough to bribe the 'medicine-man,' and probably the medicine-man is open to receive a consideration to make a brew harmless. I don't know myself, but very often a man drinks the poison-brew and escapes death. This indicates his innocence or his ability to bribe the witch-doctor."

The bulk of our African possessions are desirable mostly because they appeal to our pride, because they must be held for reasons of strategy, or because of the responsibility which we have assumed in the general work of civilization. They are our share of "the white man's burden." Their white population is inconsiderable, their possibilities of having a large white

population in the future are but slight, and it is on its white citizens that the ultimate strength of the Empire depends. South Africa alone promises a new nation for the Empire.

On the West Coast of Africa the tropical colonies of the Empire represent, as a rule, early settlements for trading purposes, and the trade was sometimes in slaves. As a balance, however, many of our East African tropical Colonies and Protectorates of to-day represent the warfare which our awakened national conscience waged against the slave traffic when other nations refused to follow our example and to abolish human servitude.

South Africa to-day is associated in the average mind with gold and diamonds, the great gold mines of the Rand and the diamond mines of Kimberley giving the country its chief advertisements. It is possible that in a far earlier epoch of history the world knew South Africa for the same reason. A popular romance by Rider Haggard places in South Africa the mines from which King Solomon gained his treasures of gold for the temple at Jerusalem ; and certainly there are to be seen to-day the remains of great mine workings, showing that an older civilization had garnered some of the mineral treasures of the land.

Whether it be true or not that South Africa was known to the peoples around the Mediterranean as far back as the days of the early Jewish kings, it is

certain that for some centuries all communication was lost. Neither the Greeks nor the Romans seem to have known anything of South Africa, though they were in close touch with Egypt and Nubia. The dense tropical forests south from Nubia were an impenetrable barrier to penetration. It was not until the fifteenth century of the Christian Era that South Africa was recalled to European notice by the visit of a Portuguese commander, Bartholomew de Diaz. Some eleven years later another great Portuguese, Vasco de Gama, rounded the Cape of Good Hope. Afterwards Table Bay was a port of call for European navigators of all nations, but chiefly Portuguese, Dutch, and English. British ships visited the Cape in 1591, and about 1602 the Dutch made it a place of call. In 1620 two English East India Company commanders, by a proclamation dated from Saldanha Bay, took possession of the Cape in the name of Britain ; but no settlement was then formed. In 1652 J. A. van Riebeck, commissioned by the Board of Directors of the Dutch East India Company at Amsterdam, landed at Table Bay accompanied by 100 persons, and took possession of what is now the site of Capetown, on behalf of the Company. In 1671 the first formal purchase of land was made from the Hottentot natives

At the time of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the European population of Cape Colony received a slight addition of French Protestants. The rule of the Dutch East India Company proved very dis-

tasteful to the Dutch colonists, who were continually prompted to move farther and farther from the seaboard and original seat of colonization. Following these migratory colonists, a magistracy was established by the Dutch at Swellendam in 1745, and another at Graaff Reinet in 1786, and in 1788 the Great Fish River was proclaimed the boundary of the Colony.

In 1795, Holland having thrown in its lot with the French Revolutionary Government, an English force proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope to secure it against the French for the Prince of Orange, but the Governor refused to obey the orders of the Prince, and the British force thereupon took possession, and the administration of the Government was assumed by General Craig. An Act of Parliament was passed in the reign of George III. to regulate the trade with the new possession. By the Peace of Amiens the Cape of Good Hope was restored to the Batavian Republic, and evacuated in 1803, but it was again captured by a British force in 1806, and at the General Peace of 1814 it was ceded in perpetuity to the British Crown.

At that time the predominant element in the Cape Colony population was Dutch. But in 1820 the British Government decided to promote British emigration to the Cape, and in that year alone 4,000 British colonists were landed.

Meanwhile, settlement had proceeded also within the Colony of Natal. This colony derived its name from its discovery by Vasco da Gama, on Christmas

Day, 1497. No settlement followed that discovery for some time, until in 1686 a Dutch vessel was wrecked in the Bay of Natal. The Dutch formed a settlement again in 1721, but soon abandoned it. In 1824 Lieutenant Farewell, of the Royal Navy, having in the previous year visited Natal on an exploring voyage, endeavoured to colonize it. Chaka, a native chief who had united into a nation the various tribes inhabiting a vast tract of country, sanctioned the formation of a settlement by a small band of white men, which, however, was broken up about four years later. The next Natal settlement was to be by the Dutch at the time of the "Great Trek."

In the neighbouring Colony of the Cape things had not gone well between the British and the Dutch. The two peoples had much in common of stubbornness and love of independence. The Dutch settlers, indeed, had proved their dour devotion to freedom in the old days of the Dutch Government, with whom they cordially quarrelled, and whose rule they were constantly seeking to evade by moving into the Hinterland, farther and farther away from the coast and constituted authority.

Now, with English rulers in charge, the Dutch of Cape Colony were doubly unhappy. They hated any sort of outside authority. They hated extremely an authority which differed from them in such important matters as the treatment of the natives. At this time the British conscience was developing fast.

Africa

The ideas of the days of Drake had passed away : to plunder and enslave a native race seemed no longer right. The Dutch settlers in the South Africa of that day had no doubt at all that it was the destiny of the blacks to be enslaved, and to become hewers of woods and drawers of water for the white race. It was an opinion honestly held, supported in argument with the most convincing texts from the Old Testament, and most stubbornly maintained.

The Kaffir wars which began in 1834 confirmed the Dutch settlers in a belief of the utter folly of the sentimental British system of dealing with the natives. The Gaika tribe, some 20,000 of Kaffir warriors and their camp-followers, invaded the south-east of the colony, and there were the usual accompaniments of such savage raids. Yet the British authority—the weak, contemptible British authority, as the Dutch thought—refused to deal strongly with the situation, and cancelled an annexation of the Kaffir territory, which the men on the spot considered necessary. It was not until 1846 that a second Kaffir outbreak proved the necessity of dealing sternly with the Kaffirs, and their territory was then confiscated as far as the Kei River. But in 1850 the horrors of a third native war had to be faced, this time a Kaffir revolt being aggravated by the Kei River Hottentots joining in the strife.

It must be admitted that our Dutch fellow-colonists in South Africa had very good reason to be aggravated

A HIPPOPOTAMUS HUNT IN TROPICAL AFRICA.

by the methods of the British authority in that quarter of the globe. There was constant fussy interference on the part of the folk in London, who knew little or nothing of local conditions, and whose sentimental ideas, though admirable in theory and well enough fitted for the civilized life of England, were impossible of application in a land where a handful of white settlers had to dominate millions of warlike savages by a moral force resting on the capacity to punish very sternly in case of outrage.

Dutch discontent with British government of the Cape showed itself in the Great Trek, which began in 1836. This remarkable movement (says an official authority), which resulted in the colonization of Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal, may be ascribed to several causes, of which the chief were: (1) General dislike of the policy of Great Britain in relation to slavery and the Native question. (2) Particular resentment against the policy of Lord Glenelg in reversing the annexation policy of Sir Benjamin d'Urban in relation to the first Kaffir war. (3) Resentment against the mode in which compensation had been made to them for the loss of their slaves under the Imperial Act, abolishing slavery—namely, by orders for payment payable in London, which they could only dispose of on the spot at a great discount.

Natal received the first wave of the emigrant Dutch population—Boers, as they had come to be called. Many of them were treacherously murdered by

Dingaan, then Zulu Chief, the murderer of, and successor to, his brother Chaka, who had welcomed the first British colonists. For two years the Zulus and the Boers waged war with varied success; but in 1839 the Dutch obtained a decisive victory, and placed Panda, an ally of theirs, and brother of Dingaan, on the Zulu throne.

But the wars between the Boers and the Zulus threatened the peace of all South Africa, and the British Governor of the Cape decided to take military possession of the Natal district, and sent there a force (1842). The troops came into collision with the Dutch Boers, were defeated by them, forced to entrench themselves, and were completely blockaded until the arrival of considerable reinforcements from Cape Colony under Colonel Cloete. The Boers submitted, on July 5, to Colonel Cloete at Pietermaritzburg. Thus the Natal Dutch, after vanquishing the Zulus, found themselves in turn vanquished by the British forces, and were compelled again to bow to the yoke of a foolish and sentimental race who did not understand the proper treatment of natives.

But the Boers were too stubborn to give up all at once their dream of freedom from interference. Upon the annexation of Natal to the English Crown, most of them left the new district, and turning back over the Drakensberg went, some to the Orange River Territory, and others to the country beyond the Vaal. In 1848 British sovereignty was extended

over the Orange River Territory, but no attempt was made by the British Government to exercise authority over its unwilling subjects beyond the Vaal, and in January, 1852, a treaty was made with them, containing a promise that they would not be interfered with in the management of their own affairs. This treaty is known as the Sand River Convention. The emigrants at the time formed three independent communities, which did not unite until 1858, when they adopted for themselves the name of the South African Republic.

In the area known now as the Orange River Free State, across the Orange River, the trekking Boers also established themselves at Winburg and elsewhere. The Cape Colony Government for some time made no attempt to establish any administration. In 1848, however, owing to the disputes between the settlers and the natives, Sir Harry Smith issued a proclamation declaring the whole territory between the Orange River and Vaal River to be under the sovereignty of Britain, and a British Resident was appointed at Bloemfontein, with Assistant-Commissioners at Winburg and the Caledon River. The discontented farmers under Pretorius took up arms, but were defeated by Sir Harry Smith at Boomplaats. The British Government, however, afterwards determined to abandon the territory; and in 1854 Sir George Clerk, the Special Commissioner for "the settling and adjustment of the affairs of the Orange River

Sovereignty," signed the Convention of Bloemfontein, by which British sovereignty was withdrawn and the independence of the State was recognized.

The position at this time was that the Home Government had, partly through devotion to the grand principles of human right and of justice as between the white and black races, partly through a fussy and unwise habit of interference with the authorities on the spot, succeeded in driving most of the Dutch settlers in South Africa into hostility, secret or open. In Cape Colony itself many of the Dutch who remained sympathized with their bolder brethren who had trekked in search of freedom. Around Cape Colony were a ring of Boer states, peopled by the trekkers, who had no love for the Government which they had deserted, and who were bound in the nature of things to stir up trouble for that Government by their harsh dealings with the natives.

It can be seen now with absolute clearness—now that the era of trouble has passed away in South Africa, to be succeeded by an era of peaceful amalgamation of two white races—that the position in the country about the middle of the nineteenth century and thereafter until the outbreak of the South African War, was impossible. It was necessary that there should be one white Power, and one white Power only, to deal with the natives. That Power might have been the Dutch if Holland had preserved her ancient position in Europe, and was still a great sea Power.

That not being so, it was inevitable that it should be the British. The civilized progress of South Africa was only possible under a homogeneous white Government, with a great sea Power to guard it against external interference. That is probably generally recognized in South Africa to-day, and the recognition condones a war which, deplorable as it was, shows now as having been necessary.

CHAPTER II

MUDDLING THROUGH

PROBABLY because an uninterrupted course of success is expected from a British colonization, and because in so many quarters that expectation is realized, a series of blunders such as has marked our history in South Africa stands out in bolder relief. It is reasonable to suppose that, bad as our blunders were, they were surpassed in folly by the records of other colonizing Empires in other quarters of the globe, for, after all, we have kept South Africa, and its feet are now set in the path of solid progress, whilst there are few instances in which another Power has managed to keep any considerable dominions overseas. But it must be admitted that in South Africa we very often seemed to have lost that wisdom which teaches a person in authority to ignore little differences of opinion and of method on the part of subjects, and

to have shown vacillation when firmness was required. The Boer population was unduly irritated by interferences which were not necessary; and when it broke out into rebellion, it usually found a complaisant yielding to all demands just when the sternest of attitudes would have been the wisest. True, the Boers were a stiff-necked generation, with faults that were so British in type as to be particularly aggravating to British rulers, as they had proved aggravating enough to their Dutch governors of another day.

But it was a folly without excuse that the British Government should—after having driven the Boers into a dangerous exile, or into discontented and sullen acquiescence with life under the British flag—have set to work to alienate also the sympathies of the colonists from the Home Country. Yet that was the first task attempted after the Great Trek of the Boers. It was proposed to make Cape Colony a penal settlement. Australia had shown her determination to have no more convicts; had, indeed, in a manner which brought painful recollections of a "Boston Tea Party," sent back from her shores the last consignment from the English prisons. It was evidently the most wise conclusion of constituted authority at Whitehall that the objection of free British colonists to receiving convicts from another country was purely climatic. At any rate, the refusal of the convicts by the Australian settlers taught nothing. It was sought to deposit them in South Africa. There was a fierce storm of

indignation among the colonists. They protested; they prepared, if necessary, to back up their protests by force of arms; and, reluctantly, constituted authority at Whitehall learned its lesson, and withdrew the obnoxious proposal.

Meanwhile, things were not going very happily with the Boer Republics. Those very qualities of impatience of control and stubborn independence which made the Boer a reluctant subject made him also a poor ruler. In the Transvaal a long period of unrest ushered in the Presidency of the Rev. Thomas Burgers, from whose rule great things were expected. He recognized the weakness of the position of the Republic in being dependent on the British colonies for communication with Europe, and conceived the bold plan of a railway to the Portuguese settlement at Delagoa Bay. But he did not succeed in obtaining the necessary financial support for his railway. Trouble arose also with the Zulus and the Bechuanas. The Boer Republic was as little successful in its military operations as in its finances, and the prestige of the white race in South Africa suffered seriously in consequence.

The little group of white men in South Africa, ringed around with overwhelming numbers of warlike savages, depend for their existence on the white man's prestige as much as do the British in India depend on the " Raj "—that reputation of the white man for being all-powerful and invincible which

is the chief bulwark of our power in India. The humiliation of the Boers of the Transvaal set all South Africa in a ferment, and it was thought necessary that the British power should interfere. In 1877 Sir Theophilus Shepstone went as a special High Commissioner to the Transvaal to study the position, and his view of the necessities of the case was shown by a proclamation annexing the Transvaal to the British Dominion.

This annexation was apparently welcomed, for it was effected without physical force. Sir T. Shepstone at the time had with him but a few mounted policemen; and troops did not arrive in the province for some time after the English Government had been set up. But subsequently hostile feelings towards the annexation were widely manifested amongst the Boers, and two deputations were sent to England to ask for a withdrawal of the British Government. In each case the answer was a negative.

In December, 1880, a majority of the Boers took up arms, and hoisted the flag of the South African Republic at Heidelberg. The towns held by British troops were invested, and a detachment of the 94th Regiment, which was being withdrawn from Lydenburg to Pretoria, to strengthen the force at headquarters, was surprised, and, after suffering very heavy loss, compelled to surrender. That was the beginning of a series of military disasters. The Boers, who had mismanaged their recent war with the natives, con-

CAPE TOWN AND TABLE MOUNTAIN, SOUTH AFRICA

ducted the campaign against the small British force of occupation with decision and skill. At Laing's Nek the British under General Colley were defeated, and again at Majuba Hill.

It was at this singularly inappropriate time that the Home Government was prompted to reconsider the question of the freedom of the South African Republic. The annexation of the Transvaal had possibly been a somewhat hasty step, but it had been an honest and well-meaning one. Machiavellian diplomacy would have suggested the wisdom of allowing the staggering Republic to have staggered a little further, to have suffered some further blows, and then to have interfered when her position was more clearly hopeless. After the annexation it was not possible to step back with dignity. Certainly it was not possible after our arms had suffered two defeats. The concessions we made were attributed to cowardice, and not to a love of justice, and the seeds were sown of that Boer contempt for the British which came to a head in the tragic war of 1899.

The Transvaal thus regained its independence in 1887. But some limitations were placed on that independence. The President of the Orange Free State, Mr. Brand, had interested himself in promoting peace between the Boers and the British, and he was a member of a joint commission appointed to consider the terms of peace. The sittings of the Commission were opened on April 28, 1881. The recommenda-

tions of the Commission were submitted in detail to the British Government, and in the result a Convention was framed embodying the terms of the peace agreement, assigning the boundaries of the Boer Republic, providing for a British Resident, defining the functions of the Resident as analogous to those of a Consul-General and *chargé d'affaires*, and conferring upon him extensive powers for the protection of the interests of the natives in the Transvaal. He also formed the medium of communication between the Government of the Transvaal and the native States on its borders. Whilst the Transvaal was left in full possession of self-governing rights, it was compelled to recognize Britain as a Suzerain Power, and any treaty between the Transvaal and a foreign State might be vetoed by the Home Government.

In the Orange Free State the Boers managed to maintain fairly good terms with the British. They succeeded in their war with the Basutos, and in 1866 Moshesh, the head chief of the Basutos, was compelled to cede much of his best cornland. The Basutos appealed to the High Commissioner, and were taken under British protection, but by the Treaty of Aliwal North in 1869, the incorporation of the conquered territory into the Orange Free State was recognized. A little later the discovery of diamonds at Kimberley led to a frontier dispute between the Orange Free State and Britain—a dispute which was finally settled, more or less amicably, by the payment to the Orange

Free State of £90,000 by the British Government in full settlement of any claim she had on the diamondiferous country.

That discovery of diamonds at Kimberley and of gold in the Transvaal hastened the end of an arrangement which was from the outset clearly impossible. There could not be two white Powers in South Africa, and between Britain and Boer it was necessary that there should be a taking of accounts to discharge much hatred and contempt on both sides. The first sign of the preparations for the coming struggle on the Boer side was in 1889, when the Orange Free State entered into an alliance with the South African Republic. This alliance was renewed in 1897, and was appealed to as binding the Free State to assist the South African Republic in her quarrel with Britain in 1899.

On the British side it cannot be said that there was any clear premonition of trouble. But that the Boer Government knew what was coming is shown by the great preparations they made for a struggle. The gold-mines of the Rand gave to the Transvaal great material resources as well as a constantly recurring series of vexations. Thus they hastened war in two ways.

It would be unprofitable to attempt here any detailed account of the course of the South African War. Some idea of its causes has perhaps been given. In 1895 a British force under Dr. Jameson

"raided" the Transvaal, attempting to solve summarily the difficulties of the position by a *coup d'état*, which would give to the British, who were now in a majority in the Transvaal, the control of the country. The raid failed. It was conceived in ignorance of the military resources of the Boers, and in the hope of a simultaneous rising in Johannesburg, which was not realized. War was now clearly inevitable, at one time or another, though desperate efforts were made to patch up a peace.

In 1899 the British Government made formal representation to the Transvaal Government of the grievances which British subjects suffered under in that country, especially as far as the withholding of the franchise was concerned. Diplomatic *pourparlers* followed, and finally the Transvaal Government offered a law giving the franchise to British subjects in the Transvaal who had resided there for five years. But this concession was conditional on three assumptions. Those assumptions were: (1) That the British Government would not in future interfere in the internal affairs of the Republic; (2) that the British Government would not insist further upon the assertion of suzerainty, the controversy being allowed tacitly to drop (this point had acquired special importance since the South African Republic had claimed the status of a sovereign international State); (3) that arbitration without a foreign element should be conceded. To this the British Government replied

that they could not bind themselves never to intervene again, but they expressed the hope that further intervention would be unnecessary if the franchise were granted. As to suzerainty, they intimated their refusal to continue the discussion ; and as to arbitration, they agreed to discuss the form of a tribunal.

This was not satisfactory to the Boers, and on October 9, 1899, they presented an ultimatum to the British Government. The Orange Free State joined its lot with the Transvaal, and then followed a tedious war in which the Boers proved how difficult it was to subdue a brave enemy, all of whose manhood was trained to the use of arms, and who were stubbornly convinced of the justice of their cause.

The war brought little satisfaction at first to the British Empire. A series of small reverses showed that we had miscalculated the strength of the enemy ; and the difficulties attending the organization of a force sufficient to repair these misfortunes disclosed a serious state of military unpreparedness in the Home Country. However, the Dominions of the Empire, seeing a need, were prompt with offers to meet it, and from Canada, Australia, and New Zealand came many regiments of volunteers, who were particularly useful in the campaign, because they understood and followed the peculiar Boer methods of warfare.

As soon as the strength of the Empire was put forth, the organized military forces of the Boer Republics were very quickly subdued ; but then

followed a harassing guerilla campaign which took many months to stamp out. It was not until May, 1902, that peace was finally concluded and its conditions set forth in the following document of great importance, for it, in part, rules the present conditions of government in the South African union :

"Army Headquarters,
"South Africa.

"General Lord Kitchener of Khartoum, Commanding-in-Chief, and His Excellency Lord Milner, High Commissioner, on behalf of the British Government, and Messrs. S. W. Burger, F. W. Reitz, Louis Botha, J. H. De la Rey, L. J. Meyer, and J. C. Krogh, acting as the Government of the South African Republic, and Messrs. C. R. de Wet, W. J. C. Brebner, J. B. M. Hertzog, and C. H. Olivier, acting as the Government of the Orange Free State, on behalf of their respective burghers, desirous to terminate the present hostilities, agree on the following Articles :

"1. The Burgher forces in the field will forthwith lay down their arms, handing over all guns, rifles, and munitions of war, in their possession or under their control, and desist from any further resistance to the authority of His Majesty King Edward VII., whom they recognize as their lawful Sovereign.

"The manner and details of this surrender will be arranged between Lord Kitchener and Commandant - General Botha, Assistant - Commandant

General De la Rey, and Chief-Commandant De Wet.

"2. Burghers in the field outside the limits of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, and all prisoners of war at present outside South Africa who are burghers, will, on duly declaring their acceptance of the position of subjects of His Majesty King Edward VII., be gradually brought back to their homes as soon as transport can be provided and their means of subsistence ensured.

"3. The burghers so surrendering or so returning will not be deprived of their personal liberty or their property.

"4. No proceedings, civil or criminal, will be taken against any of the burghers so surrendering or so returning for any acts in connection with the prosecution of the war. The benefit of this clause will not extend to certain acts contrary to the usage of war which have been notified by the Commander-in-Chief to the Boer Generals, and which shall be tried by court-martial immediately after the close of hostilities.

"5. The Dutch language will be taught in public schools in the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony where the parents of the children desire it, and will be allowed in courts of law when necessary for the better and more effectual administration of justice.

"6. The possession of rifles will be allowed in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony to persons re-

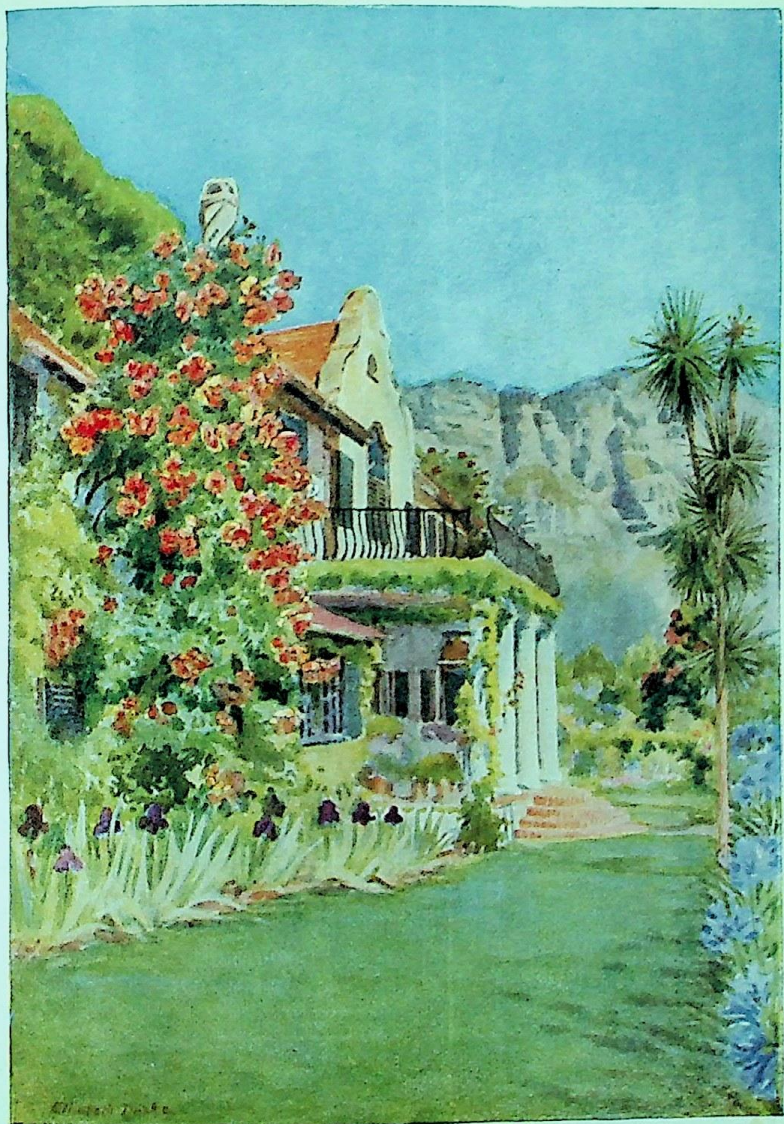
quiring them for their protection, on taking out a licence according to law.

"Military administration in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony will, at the earliest possible date, be succeeded by civil government, and, as soon as circumstances permit, representative institutions, leading up to self-government, will be introduced.

"8. The question of granting the franchise to natives will not be decided until after the introduction of self-government.

"9. No special tax will be imposed on landed property in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony to defray the expenses of the war.

"10. As soon as conditions permit, a Commission, on which the local inhabitants will be represented, will be appointed in each district of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony, under the presidency of a magistrate or other official, for the purpose of assisting the restoration of the people to their homes and supplying those who, owing to war losses, are unable to provide for themselves, with food, shelter, and the necessary amount of seed, stock, implements, etc., indispensable to the resumption of their normal conditions.

"His Majesty's Government will place at the disposal of these Commissions a sum of three million pounds sterling for the above purposes, and will allow all notes, issued under Law No. 1 of 1900, of the Government of the South African Republic, and all receipts given by the officers in the field of the late

A GARDEN AT CLAREMONT, CAPE TOWN, SOUTH AFRICA

Republics, or under their orders, to be presented to a Judicial Commission which will be appointed by the Government, and if such notes and receipts are found by this Commission to have been duly issued in return for valuable consideration, they will be received by the first-named Commissions as evidence of war losses suffered by the persons to whom they were originally given. In addition to the above-named free grant of three million pounds, His Majesty's Government will be prepared to make advances as loans for the same purpose, free of interest for two years, and afterwards repayable over a period of years, with three per cent. interest. No foreigner or rebel will be entitled to the benefit of this Clause."

The war, stubborn though it had been, left less bitterness than might have been expected. Very shortly afterwards (1906) the British authority was so confident of the situation that full responsible government was granted to the South African colonies. In 1910 these colonies joined forces to form the Union of South Africa. General Botha, and his colleague General Smuts, both of whom had fought against the British forces in the Boer War, became the leading political figures in this Union. Both proved loyal Imperialists. When the World War broke out, the German Powers relied on South Africa being at least neutral, if not an active ally. But Botha and Smuts kept the majority of the Boers to a steady loyalty to

the British Empire. There was a rebellion of a section of pro-German Boers, but it was quickly crushed. Then South Africa turned its arms against the German colonies adjacent to its territory, and, in addition to taking the chief part in subduing them, sent a contingent of troops to the French front. This South African contingent was especially notable for valour and steadiness.

In the peace negotiations following the war, South Africa, with General Smuts as her spokesman, took a prominent part. The world saw a man who in council and in the field had been one of the ablest enemies of the Empire become in the field and in council one of its most trusted leaders.

At the present time South Africa is passing through another phase in her relations with the Empire. Her political destinies are controlled in part by Boers who in the World War attached their sympathies to Germany. But even they find it difficult to be enemies of the British Empire, and give their loyalty to the Crown.

CHAPTER III

OUR PROSPECTS IN AFRICA

Our Empire in Africa has been notable in the past for mineral rather than agricultural production. But that is now quickly changing with the demand for rubber, for edible oils and the like. There is as yet no great agricultural or pastoral industry to compare with those

JOHANNESBURG, SOUTH AFRICA.

of Canada and Australia. But the development of stable natural resources—in distinction to the development of mineral wealth which is one day exhausted—proceeds quickly now, in South Africa particularly.

The tropical settlements on the west and east coasts provide chiefly tropical products such as cocoa, oil, rubber, though in some cases there is a valuable Hinterland of lofty country suitable for white settlement, and destined to be one day the great cattle ranches of the globe. With the growth of population throughout the world, and the consequent greater demand for land for the cultivation of grain, the difficulty of finding natural pasture for flocks and herds increases. The growing price of meat in all civilized countries is one sign of the dwindling of the prairie lands. The United States, which was once a great exporter of meat, threatens soon to become an importer. In Canada the cattle ranch makes way for the wheat farm. Even in Australia and New Zealand the pastoralist is being ousted by the agriculturist. The tableland of Africa will be a refuge for the cattle man in the near future. Unfortunately cattle diseases are now very common and very deadly in Africa, and have so far seriously interfered with the development of ranching in Rhodesia and elsewhere. Modern medicine is, however, grappling with the rinderpest and other cattle epidemics, and doubtless will soon effect their extermination.

Africa

In some parts of Africa, the future great industry probably will be cotton-growing. Already British cotton-millers seek anxiously for a new source of supply of raw material within the Empire, finding the United States supply becoming uncertain owing to the ravages of the boll-weevil. A British cotton-growing association has been formed in England, and is raising a large capital for the encouragement of cotton plantations under the British flag in Africa. There is there at once suitable soil and climate, and a supply of cheap labour, which seems an essential for cotton-picking. If, however, the cotton-picking machine which has been lately announced proves successful in practical working, the semi-tropical portion of Australia will enter the field as a strong competitor with Africa in cotton-growing, for the machine will do away with the necessity of having a great body of cheap labour for the picking; at present labour costs stand in the way of a great development of cotton-growing in Australia.

Rubber is a great asset to Africa. Formerly the world depended for its rubber supplies on the product of the forest trees of Brazil. A notable effort of British enterprise secured a large supply of rubber seeds from the Brazil forests, planted them out in Kew Garden hot-houses, and from there distributed young plants to suitable British colonies. Thus was founded the great "plantation rubber" industry which has made possible modern motor development.

Our Prospects in Africa

If ever an economic history of the modern world comes to be written, it will be very largely a record of British Empire achievement, with the United States taking a prominent place in the later chapters. It was British genius which developed the steel industry and steam power; the modern wool and cotton textile industries; the tobacco and rubber plantations of the world. Allowing to the French and Italian and Swiss peoples a big share of the work in developing hydro-electric power and the silk industry, the German peoples a share in the modern chemical industry, yet the British race has had a tremendous preponderance in the task of building up our industrial civilization.

One day—and that not far distant—the African colonies of the Empire will be rivals of India in the production of wealth. Two current West African events remind us of their possibilities, and of their rapid progress. One is the discovery of platinum in Sierra Leone—platinum, after radium the most precious of all metals, far exceeding gold in value. The other is the announcement of the opening of the great deep-water harbour at Takoradi in the Gold Coast colony of West Africa. The opening of this harbour will be a most important event to the Gold Coast. Hitherto all exports from the Colony have had to be carried down to open roadsteads, and cargo steamers, lying as much as two miles out to sea, have been loaded from open surf-boats and lighters. The new harbour at Takoradi, undertaken at a cost (found

from the revenue of the Colony) of three and a quarter millions sterling, will give the Gold Coast a real port. Railways and roads have been built linking up the harbour with the rich Hinterland, so that Takoradi will rapidly become the most important depot for West African trade.

Remarkable progress in providing first-class tobacco leaf is taking place in Rhodesia and Nyasaland. In these two territories British ex-service men without previous experience have shown that, with efficient training, they can make a success of tobacco-growing. The best seed was introduced for the use of the planters, experts secured from some of the most famous tobacco plantations of the world, and adequate capital provided for the most scientific plant for curing. The outcome of this enterprise is that the leaf, as prepared for export, is commanding high prices in the open market.

At one time ostrich farming was a great South African industry, but changes of fashion have killed the demand for ostrich feathers. The flocks of birds are now being sacrificed for their skins.

So far manufacture has hardly been attempted in South Africa, but there are some indications of a move in that direction. The future prosperity of the country will, for many generations, depend upon the primary industries—the products of the mines, which seem to have a long life ahead of them, and the fruits of a very wide range of farming and pastoral

A DURBAN PERGOLA, NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA.

productions. Up till now unhappy dissensions and almost continuous wars have sadly interfered with the progress of South Africa. Nor is there quite a clear sky yet. British and Boers have been united into one people with a common purpose in seeking the prosperity of South Africa, but the native question still lacks a solution. The population of the South African Union is still preponderantly black—Kaffirs, Hottentots, Zulus, Swazis, Basutos, and the like. It is impossible to admit these blacks to social and political equality with the whites. The result would be a "black South Africa," and a reproduction on the African Continent of such a state of affairs as rules at Hayti, the black Republic in the West Indies. The difficulty is to know where to draw the line between the demands of practical common sense and of an abstract sentimentality which insists that the black man is just a brother with a dark skin, and should be treated in all ways as a brother. Unfortunately, when so treated, he wants also to be a brother-in-law, and must be allowed to be if full equality is conceded, and there is the difficulty. A white race mingling its blood with a black race steps down from its place in the scheme of life. The white race having developed on certain lines to a position which promises, if it does not fulfil, the evolution of a higher human type has an instinctive repugnance to mixing its blood with peoples in other stages of evolution. It was this instinct which evolved every high type of animal life

A DURBAN PERGOLA, NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA.

from a lower. Once a type has got a step up, it must be jealous and "selfish" in its scorn of lower types, or climb down again. This may not be good ethics in the opinion of some. But it is Nature.

The question does not necessarily involve any issue of individual superiority, or even of race superiority in any but the ethnological sense. But our race, as a race, has taken up the white man's burden of struggling on towards the "upward path," of striving at a higher stage of evolution. It would certainly be more pleasant for us if we took to the lotus-eating life of the Kanaka, or the submissive, passive life of the Asiatic. But the choice has been made by Nature rather than by man. The Caucasian, with his passion for liberty, for individuality, bears the standard in the van of humanity.

In Natal there is a further complication of the race difficulty, because of the introduction in the past of coolies from India. These coolies do not get on well either with the whites or with the native blacks.

The situation in South Africa, however, though full of difficulties, is by no means desperate; and there is an obvious remedy for most of the troubles in the encouragement of a quick growth of British immigration. The opportunity of securing that on a large scale was missed after the Boer War of last century, when British mining labour might have been introduced to the Rand instead of Chinese coolie labour. Now the Boer element in South Africa is not enthusiastic in encouraging British settlement; and there

is always the difficulty of adding to the white industrial population in a land where much of the manual labour is done by blacks. But it would be absurd to be pessimistic. The British Empire of the future will have without much doubt a strong pillar in South Africa.

APPENDIX

The details of the African part of the Empire are as follows :

South Africa.

The Union of South Africa is a unification of the Colonies of Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal, and Orange Free State. The Government is by a Governor-General who is also High Commissioner for South Africa, and two Houses of Parliament.

Area.—472,347 square miles; population, 6,928,000.

Chief Products.—Gold, diamonds, maize, wine, fruit.

Climate.—Ranges from temperate to subtropical.

History.—In 1486 the Portuguese navigator, Bartholomew Diaz, landed in Algoa Bay. Vasco da Gama explored the coast of South Africa later. British and Dutch ships made the Cape of Good Hope a port of call on their way to the East Indies. In 1652 the Dutch took formal possession of Table Bay. In 1795 Britain took possession, but in 1803 restored South Africa to the Dutch. In 1806 it was again captured by the British, and in 1814 confirmed as their possession. Some of the Dutch settlers, disliking British rule, went inland to settle in new country there. This led to the colonization of Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State. The two last were for a time independent Republics.

Africa

The war of 1899-1900 finally placed all South Africa under the British flag. In 1909 the South African Colonies united to form the Union of South Africa. During the World War, a section of the Boer population rebelled, but the greater part of the Boers remained loyal. The rebellion was quickly crushed, and South African forces rendered great service to the Empire by conquering German colonies in South Africa and sending troops to the Western Front.

The following are Dependencies of South Africa:

Basutoland, a Protectorate. Area, 11,716 square miles; population, 500,000. Annexed to the Cape Colony in 1871. Subsequently separated; now governed by a Resident Commissioner who is under the direction of High Commissioner for South Africa.

Bechuanaland, a Protectorate. Area, 275,000 square miles; population, 158,000. Annexed to Cape Colony (1895), but administered as a separate territory like Basutoland.

Swaziland, a Protectorate. Area, 6,600 square miles; population, 112,000. Governed on the same system as Basutoland. For a time was under the authority of the Boer Government of the Transvaal. Came under British rule after the last South African War.

Ascension.

A naval station in the South Atlantic, a Dependency of St. Helena.

Tristan da Cunha.

A tiny island in the South Atlantic with 127 inhabitants, who live a simple communistic life. Crime is unknown, as also is alcoholic liquor.

Southern Rhodesia.

Formerly under the British South Africa Company; now a self-governing Colony with a legislature of two Houses. By

a Referendum (1922) the majority of the voters decided against incorporation with the Union of South Africa.

Area.—148,000; population, about 1,000,000.

Climate.—On the highlands healthy and bracing; mean temperature is under 70°.

Chief Products.—Gold and other minerals, maize, cotton, tobacco, fruit.

NORTHERN RHODESIA.

Formerly under the British South Africa Company; now a Crown Colony governed by a Governor and a Legislative Council (partly elected).

Area.—287,000 square miles; population, about 1,000,000.

Climate.—Subtropical.

Chief Products.—Maize, tobacco, cotton, cattle, minerals.

KENYA COLONY AND PROTECTORATE.

These territories used to be known as "the East Africa Protectorate." They are governed by a Governor with a Legislative Council, partly elected, partly nominated by the Crown.

Area.—225,000 square miles; population, about 2,750,000.

Climate.—Tropical on the coast, temperate on the highlands.

Chief Products.—Rubber, coffee, maize, cotton, tobacco, sisal.

History.—Formerly under the British East Africa Protectorate. British Government took control 1895. New constitution granted in 1924 which allows to the natives a great measure of local self-government.

GAMBIA.

Crown Colony governed by Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—4,000 square miles; population, 211,000.

Chief Products.—Ground-nuts, rice, cotton, rubber, maize.

Climate.—Tropical.

History.—First discovered by Portuguese. Queen Elizabeth in 1588 gave a British company a charter to trade with the Gambia. After somewhat undefined tenure, Britain was confirmed in the possession of the Gambia by a treaty with France in 1783. Became a Colony in 1843.

Gold Coast.

Crown Colony governed by Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—48,000 square miles; population, 2,112,000.

Chief Products.—Palm oil, rubber, cocoa, kola, and gold.

Climate.—Tropical.

History.—Discovered by Portuguese and French navigators in the fourteenth century. Garrisoned by Portuguese in 1482. Fell into the hands of the Dutch. First settled by the British in 1618, by the "Company of Adventurers of London trading into Africa." Later, Swedes, Danes, and Brandenburghers made settlements. In 1821 the Gold Coast settlements passed formally into the hands of the British Government. In 1871, by treaty with the Dutch, we obtained sole sovereignty of the Gold Coast.

Mauritius.

Crown Colony governed by a Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—700 square miles; population, 377,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Sugar, spices, tea, and cotton.

History.—Discovered by the Portuguese, 1507. Peopled by the Dutch, 1598. Taken possession of by the French, 1721. Captured by the English in 1810, as it had been a centre of French privateering.

Our Prospects in Africa

Nigeria.

Formerly comprised two Crown Colonies and Protectorates —Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria (in which is included Lagos). In 1914 these were amalgamated to make the one colony of Nigeria.

Area.—Northern Nigeria, 255,000 square miles; Southern Nigeria, 77,000 square miles. Population cannot be accurately estimated.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Palm oil, rubber, cotton, maize, cocoa.

History.—British traders had posts in the Niger country in the seventeenth century. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries French and German traders came. In 1879 the United African Company was organized by Sir G. Taubman Goldie to consolidate British interests. In 1886 a British agreement with Germany settled the British spheres of influence in the Niger. In 1897 a friendly agreement with France also was come to in regard to boundaries. In 1900 the Chartered Company transferred its rights to the British Crown, and our Nigerian possessions were divided into two colonies—Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria. In Southern Nigeria is included Lagos, which once belonged to the Gold Coast Colony. In 1914 these were amalgamated.

Nyasaland.

Protectorate governed by a Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—40,000 square miles; population 1,300,000, of whom about 1,600 are Europeans.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Rubber, cotton, tobacco, maize, rice.

History.—Explored by Dr. Livingstone in 1859. Mission

settlements were subsequently made. In 1891 an Anglo-Portuguese agreement defined the boundaries of Nyasaland.

St. Helena.

Crown Colony governed by Governor and Executive Council.

Area.—47 square miles; population, 3,700.

Climate.—Temperate.

History.—Discovered by the Portuguese, 1502. Afterwards held by the Dutch. In 1673 seized by the British. In 1815 used as Napoleon's prison. Was once a most important port of call for shipping, but as a port has been ruined by the opening of the Suez Canal.

Seychelles.

Crown Colony governed by Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—156 square miles; population, 24,500.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Copra, spices, and guano.

History.—Discovered by the Portuguese in 1505. Headquarters of pirates until occupied by the French in 1743. Captured by the British in 1794, but not until 1810 treated as a British Colony.

Sierra Leone.

Crown Colony and Protectorate governed by Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—28,000 square miles; population, 1,500,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Palm oil, rubber, kola, and ginger.

History.—First colonized as a refuge for manumitted African slaves. Made over to Britain, 1788. In 1888 made a separate colony.

Our Prospects in Africa

Somaliland.

Protectorate governed by an Administrator.

Area.—68,000 square miles; population cannot be accurately estimated.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Ivory, ostrich feathers, gums, gold, and hides.

History.—Protectorate established in 1884. Up to 1923 there were frequent wars with the surrounding Dervish tribes.

Uganda.

British Protectorate governed by an Administrator. There is also a native King who has certain rights regulated by treaty.

Area.—94,000 square miles; population, 3,000,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Rubber, coffee, cocoa.

Zanzibar.

Nominally an independent Sultanate, but controlled by Britain. Population, 250,000.

Chief Products.—Cloves and other spices, ivory, rubber, ebony, copra.

Mandated Territories.

Following on the World War the following territories in Africa came under the Mandate of the British Empire:

British Togoland.—What was formerly German Togoland was divided between British and French Mandates. British Togoland is administered by the Gold Coast Colony.

Area.—About 13,000 square miles.

British Cameroons.—The Cameroons formerly belonged to Germany. In 1920 the area was divided between British and

French Mandates. British Cameroons is administered by Nigeria.

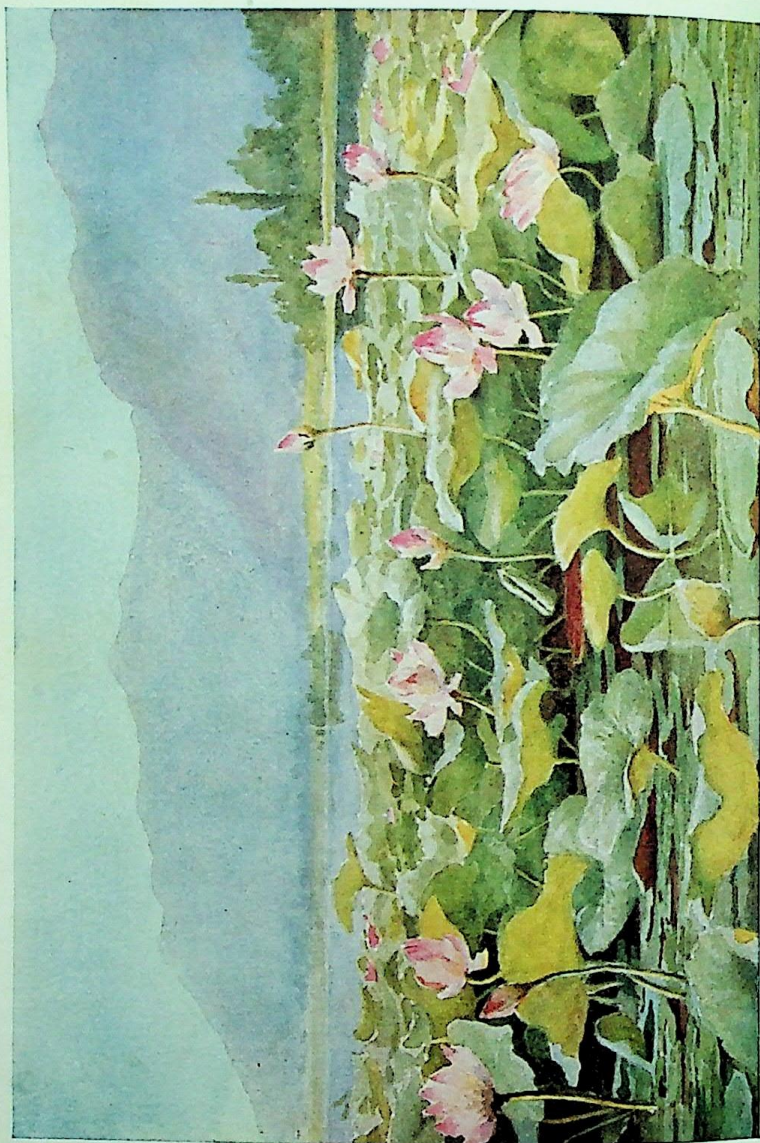
Area.—About 31,000 square miles; population, about 650,000.

Tanganyika Territory.—This is a part of the old German colony of German East Africa under Mandate to the British Empire (other portions of the Colony were assigned to Portugal and Belgium).

Area.—About 373,000 square miles, including the island of Mafia transferred from Zanzibar in 1923. Population, about 5,000,000. Governed by a Governor and a Legislative Council (since 1926).

South-West Africa.—This, a former German colony, was conquered by the forces of the Union of South Africa 1914-15. It is now a Mandated Territory administered by that Union and has a measure of representative government.

Area.—312,000 square miles; population, about 220,000.

LOTUS LILIES ON THE DAL LAKE.

LOTUS LILIES ON THE DAL LAKE.

SECTION IV

THE INDIES

CHAPTER I

FROM ALEXANDER TO TO-DAY

I DO not remember ever having been so vividly impressed with a sense of the greatness of the British Empire as at a London meeting of the All-India Moslem League some years ago.

At this meeting Aga Khan was the chief speaker. A great man among the Moslems of the world is Aga Khan, worshipped almost, for is he not of the line of the Prophet, a legitimate descendant of "the old Man of the Mountains" of the crusading days—of that "Old Man of the Mountains," who was such a terror to the Christians, and who was said to have had such an original and highly Oriental way of recruiting his army? In a mountain fastness the Old Man had had constructed a lordly pleasure place. All that Eastern luxury could devise, from seraglios to snowed sherbet, from rose-gardens to sweetmeats, was to be enjoyed in that valley. There, having been trapped and drugged, were brought young men likely to prove good warriors. For some months they enjoyed all the delights of an earthly paradise. Then, drugged again, they were taken away, enlisted in the

Old Man's army, told that they had been in Paradise, and that the way to win Paradise again was to fight and die for their lord.

That is not an excerpt from the Arabian Nights romances. It is actual history, and the Aga Khan of to-day is lineally descended from that terrible Old Man, who made his followers believe quite genuinely in Paradise by giving them a foretaste of its delights. He was present at the meeting to declare his loyalty to Great Britain, and to speak enthusiastically of King Edward as Kaisir-I-Hind, "the Emperor of the Moslems." As I heard him, the centuries rolled back; to show the first coming of the British to India, a tiny band of adventurers emulating the boldness, and some of the ruthlessness, of the Spaniard Pizarro, who broke into Peru; the irruption, centuries back, of the Mohammedans over the Himalayan mountains to bring fire and the sword among the gentle Hindoos; the invasion of India by the Greeks under Alexander in the days before the Imperial power of Rome had dawned on the world. Great Britain to-day, as the guardian of India, seemed heir to all the ages, descendant of all the Empires of the past.

To rule over India may well indeed be considered the crown of Imperial ambition. India is so great in area, in population, in history. As "the desire of the world," an ancient chronicler describes India; and the description was just, for, since ever history was, the eyes of men seem to have been turned towards

the rich peninsula stretching beneath the roof of the world.

It is probably some 4,000 years since an Aryan race came over the Himalayas into Hindustan, and finding there a dark race, the Dravidians, of a high state of civilization, in part destroyed these, in part mingled with them, and formed the Indian people. Among this mixed race—as of the Normans and Anglo-Saxons—there broke as invading colonists from time to time Semitic, Turanian, and Mongol tribes, all leaving some trace on the racial type.

Of the early history of the Hindoos we have many records in their great epic poems, the "Mahabharata," for example, and we may learn as much as we wish of their habits of life and of the growth of an intrinsically noble religion, Buddhism. That religion later descended generally to an absurd idolatry, but as preached by Gautama, it was a creed of pure thought and of noble mercy. From the same epic records we may find also the origin of the "caste" system, which is the greatest curse of India to-day. Many of the conquered Dravidians became vassals to the victorious Aryans, and that gave a beginning to the system of class distinctions, which has reached such absurd lengths in India to-day that there are some hundreds of different "castes" for all the occupations of mankind, and the beggar who begs with the help of a musical instrument is of a different caste from the beggar who begs with the aid of a monkey, and may

not eat food with him, lest he become a pariah, and forfeit all hope of comfort and happiness in this and the next worlds.

In the early days of India there seem to have been invasions by the Assyrian and the Persian Emperors; but of these no definite records remain. The first certain news the European world had of India was in 327 B.C., when Alexander the Great, at the head of his Macedonians, penetrated to its plains. Alexander made no enduring conquest, but he seems to have left a small Greek colony in India. On the return of the invading army, Megasthenes wrote an account of the country, and that is the first record of it which European civilization won. After Alexander's death, there were occasional irruptions of the Scythians into India, attracted by the plunder that she offered. But these had no great effect on the national type.

With the beginning of the eleventh century came the first Mohammedan invasion of India. Behind the barrier of the Himalayas the mingled Aryans and Dravidians had, by this time, evolved a graceful and highly organized civilization. But the Aryans had lost much of their primitive vigour on the hot plains of India; and the national religion, Buddhism, with its encouragement of the contemplative life, did not promote martial efficiency. The Hindoos fell an easy prey to the Mohammedans, whose religion was war, and whose fierce nature had been nurtured in deserts and mountain fastnesses. By the end of the

twelfth century, Delhi had fallen to the Mohammedans, and in 1232 all India was under the rule of the Mamelukes.

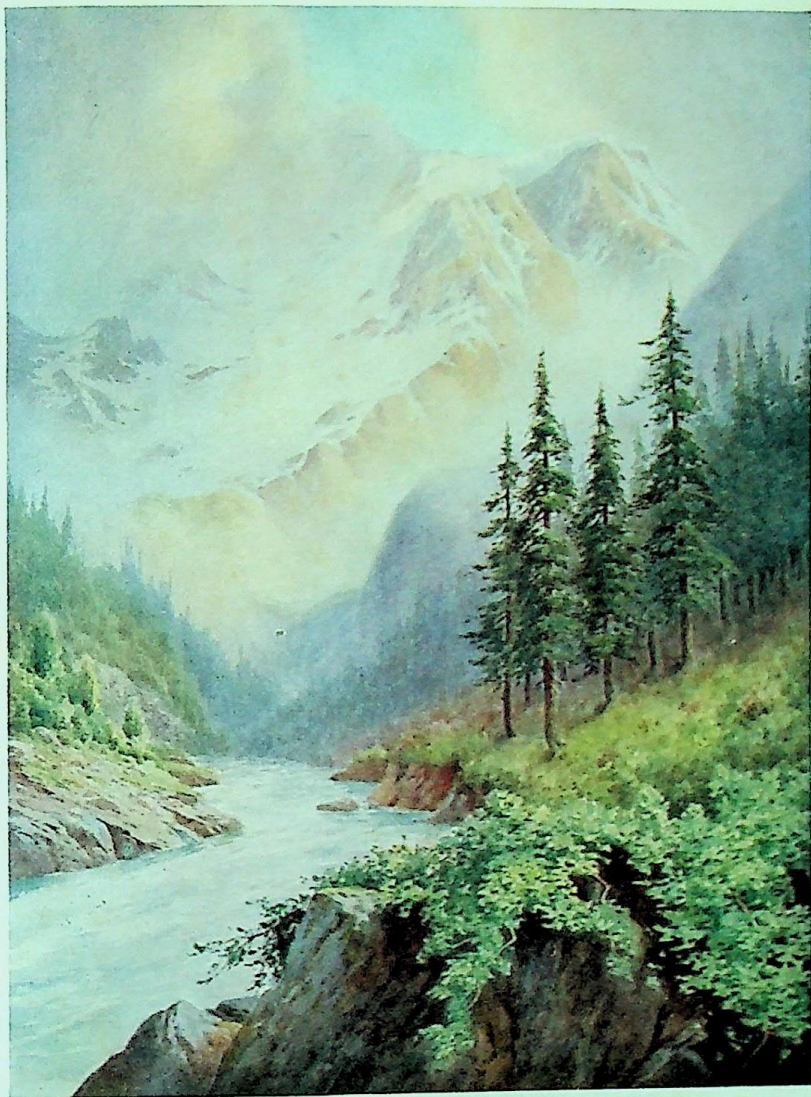
The sixteenth century saw the Mohammedan Mogul dynasty—the most splendid of all the old rulers of India—founded by the "Lion," a descendant of Timur by a Mongolian wife. Under the Mogul dynasty the two religions, Mohammedanism and Buddhism, were in a way reconciled, or at least persuaded to live together in peace, and the way was prepared for the great art Renaissance of the reign of Shah Jehan (1628), the epoch of the building of the Taj-i-Mahal, and of the making of the Peacock Throne.

That was the climax of India's greatness under native rulers. Already the Europeans had found the sea-way to India, and peoples of a more robust civilization were preparing to swoop down upon an Empire which was associated in the popular mind of the white races with fabulous wealth beyond the possibility even of computing. On May 20, 1498, Vasco da Gama, the Portuguese, cast anchor in the roadstead of Calicut, and thenceforth the European factor entered into all calculations as to the destiny of India.

The Pope, following a fashion of the day, gave the Indies to Portugal, as the West Indies had been given to Spain, and Portugal made serious attempts to establish an Empire there, and certainly won great advantages of trade, of which she kept a jealous

monopoly. Religion was not forgotten, and St. Francis Xavier brought to the land of Buddha the Gospel of Christ.

But other European nations were eager to share with Portugal the trade of the Indies. In 1595 a Dutchman, Cornelius de Houtman, reached the Indies by the sea route, and a little later a Dutch East India Company was formed to capture a share of the trade. Francis Drake had in 1578 called at the East Indies after one of his astonishing feats of patriotic piracy on the South-American coast, and in 1599 the English East Indian Trading Company was formed. France and Germany had also entered into the rivalry for Indian trade.

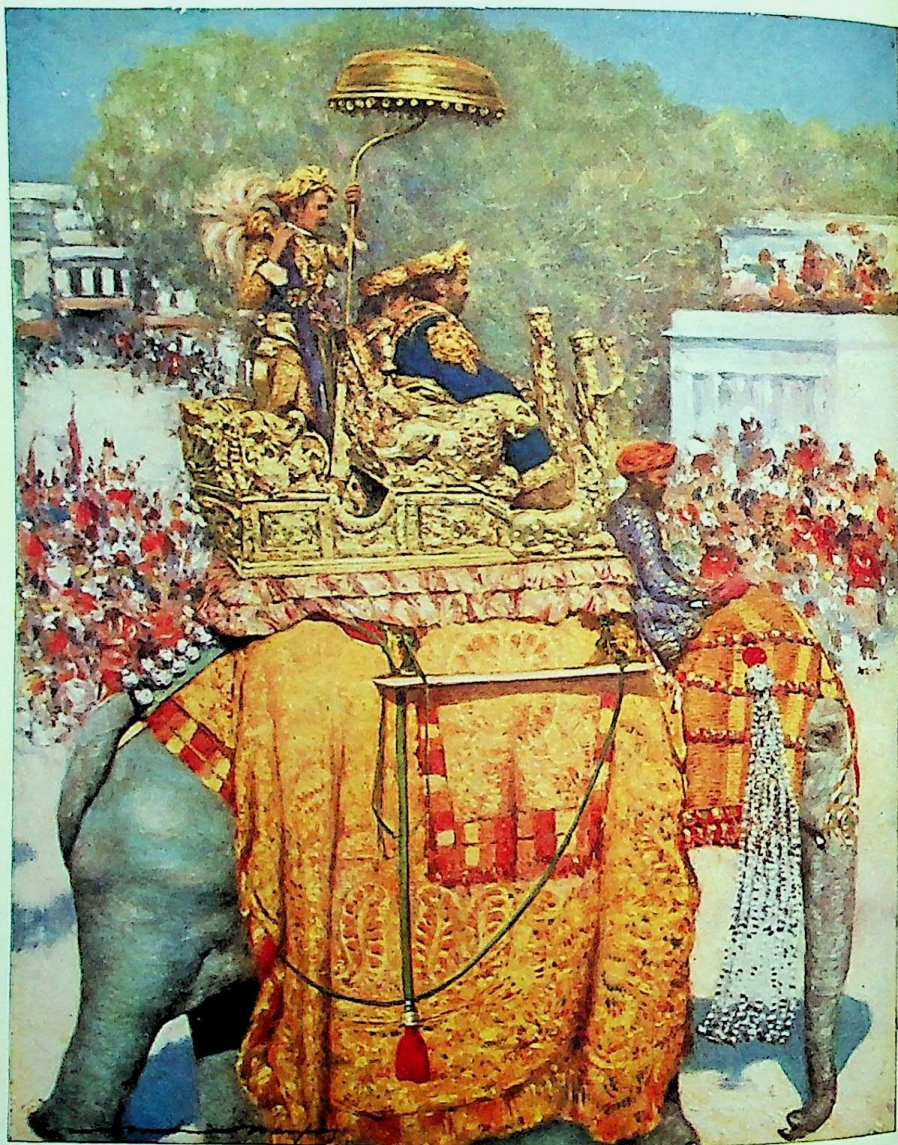
The first struggle for supremacy was between British and Portuguese. In 1612 the British Government sent a fleet to East Indian waters, and the Portuguese power there was broken. The Great Mogul was then persuaded to grant to Britain certain specific trading rights. The later years of the seventeenth century were marked by a consolidation of the British power, and the growing strength of the East India Company, which now, however, began to suffer from the illegal rivalry of other companies formed in Britain. To secure a share of the trade with the Indies was considered a sure passport to fortune, and no Government-granted monopoly would have protected the interests of "John Company," as the East India Company had come to be called, if it had not

MOUNTAIN MISTS, HIMALAYAS.

been ready with a strong arm to enforce its rights, and anything more than its rights that was profitable to seize.

The eighteenth century was marked by a struggle of giants for supremacy in India. On one side was France with the great Dupleix as her general, on the other side was Great Britain with Clive. To Clive belongs the credit of some of the most brilliant feats of arms in history. He was the founder of the British "Raj," which mainly holds India to-day—the tradition that the British race is invincible in the field, no matter what the odds to be faced. One of his first exploits was to beat off an army of 10,000 native troops with 120 British soldiers and 200 Sepoys. By 1763 the French power in India had been crushed, mainly, through the energy and the martial genius of Clive.

The struggle had been a severe one, however, and the burden of its expense proved too great for the East India Company. It sought to retrieve its financial position by drawing more heavily from the resources of India, as though those were inexhaustible. The period of corruption and exaction by the servants of the Company which followed the British victory in India deeply stained our name and probably sowed the seeds of the Indian Mutiny, when many of the native or Sepoy regiments revolted, and almost succeeded in destroying our power. But with the tradition of the "Raj" behind them, the British troops re-established our supremacy against enormous

odds. The mutineers were sternly punished. But it was recognized by the British Government that there had been causes at work which gave some prompting to the outbreak. The rule of India by the East India Company was ended on August 3, 1858, and the British Government took direct responsibility for the control of the Indian Empire. In 1877 Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India at a great Durbar held at Delhi. Of this ceremony Field-Marshal Earl Roberts gives a spirited account in his *Forty-one Years in India :*

"The Chiefs and Princes were all settled in their several camps ready to meet the Viceroy, who, on his arrival, in a few graceful words welcomed them to Delhi, and thanked them for responding to his invitation. He then mounted with Lady Lytton on a State elephant, and a procession was formed which, I fancy, was about the most gorgeous and picturesque which has ever been seen, even in the East. The magnificence of the native Princes' retinue can hardly be described; their elephant housings were of cloth of gold, or scarlet and blue cloths embroidered in gold and silver. The howdahs were veritable thrones of the precious metals, shaded by the most brilliant canopies, and the war-elephants belonging to some of the Central India and Rajputana Chiefs formed a very curious and interesting feature. Their tusks were tipped with steel; they wore shields on their foreheads, and breastplates of flashing steel; chain-

A DISTINGUISHED MAHARAJA AT AN INDIAN DURBAR.

mail armour hung down over their trunks, and covered their backs and sides; and they were mounted by warriors clad in chain-mail and armed to the teeth.

"Delhi must have witnessed many splendid pageants when the Rajput, the Mogul, and the Mahratta dynasties, each in its turn, was at the height of its glory; but never before had Princes and Chiefs of every race and creed come from all parts of Hindustan, vying with each other as to the magnificence of their entourage, and met together with the same object—that of acknowledging and doing homage to one Supreme Ruler.

"January 1, 1877, saw the Queen proclaimed Empress of India. The ceremony was most imposing and in every way successful. Three tented pavilions had been constructed on an open plain. The Throne pavilion in the centre was a very graceful erection, brilliant in hangings and banners of red, blue, and white satin, magnificently embroidered in gold with appropriate emblems. It was hexagonal in shape, and rather more than 200 feet in circumference. In front of this was the pavilion for the ruling Chiefs and higher European officials, in the form of a semicircle 800 feet long. The canopy was a Star of India, blue and white satin embroidered in gold, each pillar being surrounded by an Imperial crown. Behind the Throne was the stand for the spectators, also in the form of a semicircle, divided in the middle, and likewise canopied in

brilliant colours. Between these two blocks was the entrance to the area.

" Each Chief and high official sat beneath his own banner, which was planted immediately behind his chair, and they were all mixed up as much as possible to avoid questions of precedence, the result being the most wonderful mass of colour, produced from the intermingling of British uniforms and plumes with gorgeous Eastern costumes set off by a blaze of diamonds and other precious stones."

Since then each British monarch has been proclaimed as ruler of India, and in the year 1911, King George established a new precedent by going to Delhi personally for the Durbar of his proclamation. It was a characteristic gesture towards his Indian subjects of the King who will probably go down to history as George the Dutiful—the man who never neglected a duty or broke an obligation, never spared himself in the service of his people.

A "Durbar," it may be explained, is simply a ceremonial gathering. The records of any one of our campaigns in India tell of scores of Durbars held by our generals to receive native Chiefs. In proportion as the greatness of the occasion demands, a Durbar assumes the trappings of magnificence. In a country such as India, where matters of ceremony and etiquette are considered so important, it is essential that the Durbar held for a grand event should be summoned with the strictest attention to all formalities, and that

the Chiefs taking part in it should be received with the proper ritual. Consequently the proceedings of a great Durbar such as that which assembled to hail the King-Emperor extended over some days, the earlier dates being given up to the ceremonious arrival in camp of the various native rulers. Day after day is marked by some great procession leading up to the final culmination, the Proclamation and Homage.

That pride of state which is not unknown in Europe, and makes the poor Italian aristocrat submit to semi-starvation in order to spare the money to be able to appear in a carriage in the streets, reaches to the point almost of a mania among Eastern peoples. If allowed to do so, some of the Indian Princes would beggar themselves completely so that they should make a proud display at a Durbar; but there is no encouragement to pomp of a ruinous nature.

During the World War, India fulfilled nobly her obligations as a partner in the British Empire. Indian troops served on all the chief Fronts, and took a very large part in the Palestine and Mesopotamian campaigns. The feudatory Princes of India—those who rule the Native States under the suzerainty of the King-Emperor—were generous in help with men and money.

The last decade has seen a notable development in the constitutional position of India within the Empire. She is now represented in the Imperial Conference, and has the beginning of Parliamentary institutions under a somewhat complicated system which is known as a

"Dyarchy" and which need not be explained in detail as it is just now under review, and will probably be greatly changed in the near future. It is clear that many years must pass before India can be given full self-government on Dominions lines. A very small proportion of the population is literate. The caste system, the differences in religion and race, make real national unity a matter of slow achievement.

A special difficulty in the growth of India to the status of a nation is that the section of the population which is most politically-minded, which is most eager for self-government, is the weakest in character and in fighting strength. The more robust sections of the population are less interested in politics. Willing to accept the sovereignty of the British race, they would not be content to obey or to share rule with fellow-citizens whom they despise. If the British *Raj* were withdrawn from India to-morrow, the result would not be an India governed by Indians, but a return to the conditions of anarchy and internecine warfare which prevailed before the nineteenth century, with probably the entry of some other Power to assume control.

CHAPTER II

THE INDUSTRIES OF THE INDIES

"The Indies," to the imagination of the seventeenth century, were associated always with ideas of the luxuries of life. There were in the Indies mountains

AN INDIAN STREET SCENE.

of gold and silver, strands of precious stones, inexhaustible wealth of ivory, of spices, and of rare gums. As a matter of truth, the Indies were then probably, as they are now, repositories and storehouses of gold and silver and precious stones rather than great producers of such wealth. Ivory is an African rather than an Asiatic product. In regard to spices alone can reality come up to the expectations aroused by the early travellers to the East. One precious stone, and one only, comes mainly from the Indies, and that is the pearl. At one time pearl-shelling as an industry was native to Great Britain, and pearls are still found in mussels got from Irish rivers. But the chief centre of pearl-fishing has long been the tropical region around the East Indies. Thence comes nowadays the bulk of the world's supply of pearl shell and of pearls.

It is a common mistake to suppose that a pearl-shelling fleet seeks gem pearls as the sole source of its profits. That is by no means so. The chief quest, indeed, of the pearler is not the gem pearl, but simply the pearl-shell oyster, which yields "mother-of-pearl," a material used extensively for ornamentation, for the handles of knives, and for buttons. The pearls are really incidentals of the industry. On a good patch of pearl oysters a fleet would make handsome profits, if never a pearl were found in the molluscs. It is estimated that on an average, a pearl of value (*i.e.*, worth over £1) is found in every 4,000 shells. But almost all these shells would be valuable otherwise

for their mother-of-pearl, and when the oyster shelters a large pearl of good shape, or a curiously coloured pearl, its value may run to hundreds, or even thousands, of pounds.

The divers are always alert to thieve pearls. They are said to know an oyster which is likely to contain a pearl by a little bulge on the outside shell. To guard against theft by the divers is one of the cares of the pearl-sheller. Gruesome are the stories told of the punishments inflicted on dishonest divers by their overseers. In a pearling fleet, working in savage seas, the men engaged mostly savages, no civilized law runs. Punishment follows quickly on the heels of crime, or the suspicion of crime. Neither judge nor jury nor form of trial is needed. Who is to know if a diver or two has disappeared ?

The method of the industry makes easy one form of deadly punishment. The diving is now mostly in deep waters, the shallow reaches of pearl-shell beds having been exhausted. So, with all possible care, cases of divers' paralysis are common enough, through the pressure of the water on the man at work at the bottom of the sea. Wilful negligence in leaving him a little longer than should be under water makes his death practically certain. That, they say, is the penalty of the thieving diver.

Most of the diving for pearl-shell is now done with diving suits. The days of the naked native who, with a stone tied to his foot, went down into the depths

and snatched a few shells, and came up again, are passing. The deeper waters to be exploited make the use of the divers' suit and helmet necessary. But it is, of course, no safeguard against divers' paralysis when working at a great depth.

In the early days of the industry the inshore banks and shallow beaches were rich in pearl-shell; it could be collected in some places at low tide, and the utmost depth attempted by divers was three fathoms. Now those shallow beds have all been exhausted, and depths of to twenty fathoms are worked at distances as great as twenty miles from the shore. Diving in these depths is always a matter of some danger, and divers' paralysis is almost certain to overtake the man who continues very long at the work.

Sharks and devil-fish might be thought to be of great danger. But they rarely seem to attack divers. The shark is a particularly cowardly brute, and the sight of the strange head-gear frightens him away. Devil-fish are common enough in these tropical waters, but they haunt the rocky coasts rather than the muddy shallows where the pearl oyster thrives. Divers say that they can always frighten away a shark by opening the air-escape cock of the diving helmet a little, making a rush of bubbles through the water.

Thursday Island, off the extreme North Coast of Australia, used to be the headquarters of the great pearl-shelling fleets—British and Japanese. Now all the fleets controlled by the greatest syndicate in the

business have been removed to the East Indies. One reason given for this was the restriction on the landing of the syndicate's employees at Thursday Island, owing to the White Australian policy. But a more weighty reason probably was that the beds around Thursday Island were becoming exhausted, and those in the East Indies were still practically unexploited—so far, at any rate, as the deep waters were concerned.

Most of the men employed by this syndicate (which is a well-organized affair, and maintains good discipline on its craft) are Japanese. Others are Kanakas. The overseers only are of white blood as a rule, though there are many white divers.

It is with the swarming crowd of boats outside the big syndicate that the wild life of pearl-shelling is best illustrated. There are little fleets owned and controlled solely by Japanese, others by Malays, a few by white men working on their own. It is practically necessary for pearl-shelling that there should be a "mother-boat" and a fleet of small diving-boats. The "mother-boat" carries stores, is a depot for shell and a refuge in case of sudden storm. From her as a centre sail out the small craft on to the oyster banks. Thus some capital is needed for a pearling enterprise.

Storms in those tropical seas are of deadly fierceness. If one sweeps the ocean when a pearling fleet is out, great loss of life is certain. Luggers are overwhelmed before they can reach the mother-boat. Sometimes even that larger vessel is smothered in the

fury of the seas. But fortunately the storms are almost as regular as they are fierce. During a certain time of the year they are to be expected, and then pearling is suspended. At other times of the year storms are very rare. Occasionally, however, a pearling fleet is caught and some scores of lives lost.

The workers in the industry make little permanent profit out of their perilous work. Most of their earnings are spent with the store ship or during wild sprees ashore. Thursday Island, in the days when it was a centre for pearling, used to be known as "Thirsty Island," on account of the hard drinking of the white men of the fleet. The coloured divers find solace in worse things than alcohol, and much of their money is spent on opium.

Apart from pearl-fishing, most of the industries of the British Indies are prosaic enough. Wheat is one of the chief products of Hindustan, and except that in culture the wooden plough is more common than the modern steel cultivator, and the ox than the horse, there is nothing distinctive in the Indian wheat farm. Rice, which will not flourish without a surfeit of water, and demands fields which can be flooded periodically, is a more picturesque crop. It is the chief agricultural product of all the warmer parts of Asia. Demanding as it does much labour of an unpleasant kind, its culture is never likely to become common in countries which have not an abundance of cheap coolies. The growth of indigo for dye was

once a flourishing staple industry of India, but its palmy days are over. The vogue of aniline dyes gave indigo one blow. Then the discovery of a method of synthetically making a dye similar to indigo brought ruin to many plantations. Jute is still a flourishing industry, and the bulk of the world's cornsacks and wool-bales are made of Indian jute.

The growth of tea-drinking has contributed enormously to Indian prosperity. Not so very long ago tea was produced solely in China, and its consumption was practically confined to that Empire. The use of tea as a beverage spread slowly to Russia and to England. In our land its use was at first so little understood that it was boiled as though a vegetable, and the leaves eaten, whilst the infusion water was thrown away. But gradually the merits of tea, which is, without a doubt the best non-alcoholic drink the world knows, spread in the British islands. After Russia, England, Ireland, and Scotland became huge customers for tea. With the British flag tea-drinking followed as a habit. The Australians, for instance, are the greatest consumers of tea per head in the world. Tea also penetrated the Continent of Europe in the wake of the British tourist, and is quite common to-day in France, and becoming known in Germany and Italy. Wherever it is introduced, its virtues are recognized, and it is safe to forecast that within a century all the world will drink tea.

But no longer does China reap the sole benefit of

an increasing demand; indeed, the Chinese tea industry has lately languished. It is India and Ceylon which have profited most by the new world-demand for the dried leaf of the tea-plant; and they promise to take and keep the lead in the world's tea-production. Fortunately the chemists do not as yet hold out any threat of a "synthetic" tea.

The growing demand for rubber gives another hope of increasing prosperity for the British Empire in the Indies. Coffee, spices such as cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, and cotton, are yet other staple industries. Timber is another source of wealth. Mining is not of the first importance, though there are great tin-mines in the Malay Peninsula and gem-mines in Burmah.

It will be as a manufacturing centre that the British Empire in Asia will probably attract most attention in the near future. Before the coming of the Europeans the Indians had many great industries. In metal-working and in the making of textiles they showed wonderful skill and art. Their designs, indeed, have profoundly influenced the whole world of applied art. But this handicraft, extraordinarily skilful, and extraordinarily cheap because of the low wages of the craftsmen, could not compete with the work of machines. The power-loom can imitate, well enough for the generality of people, the finest of hand-designs, and works with the speed of a hundred hand-weavers. Of metal work the same can be said. The

old handicrafts of India perish therefore. But their place is taken by factories on the European model in which the cheap labour of the Hindoos is welcome. The cotton-spinning industry of India has already reached to great dimensions, and other forms of machine industries flourish. The change is hardly a happy one, from the village craftsman working patiently with loom or tiny forge at some article in which he would put a trace of personal artistry, to the factory "hand" tending a machine which grinds out fabrics by the hundreds of yards and metal articles by the gross. But it is "civilization," and that plea explains, and justifies, everything.

CHAPTER III

INDIA TO THE TRAVELLER

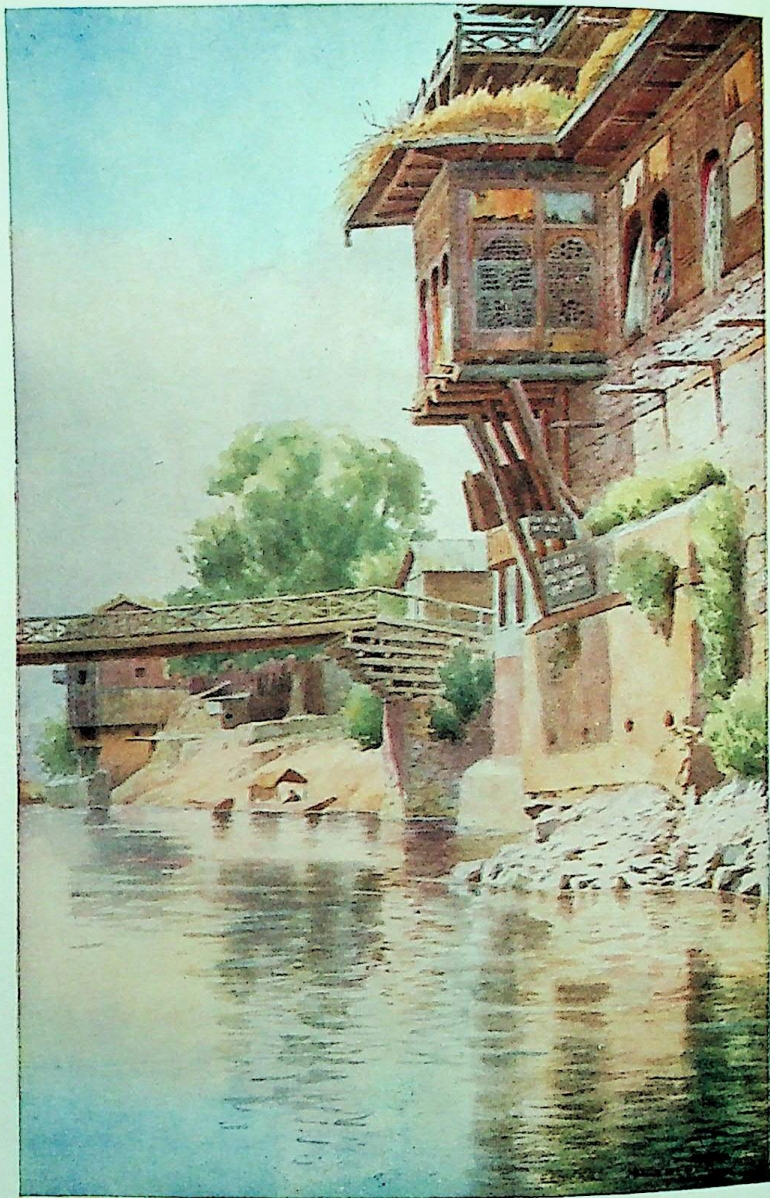
The charm of India to the tourist has a hundred reasons. The land has some of the most stupendous and wonderful of the world's natural features; and it shelters the monuments of the most gorgeous civilization that the race of man has known. Two descriptions of different phases of India's beauties recall themselves to me in contrast: the one an account of early spring near the Himalayas, by Sir Francis Younghusband; the other a description of the pink city of Jaipur, by Mr. Louis Esson, an Australian writer.

In his book on "Kashmir," Sir Francis Younghusband writes :

"The long drive from the railway-station at Rawal Pindi, 196 miles from Srinagar, was nearly ended. We had steadily ascended the Valley of the Jhelum, with the river continually dashing past us on the left—a strong, impetuous stream now being turned to useful ends : firstly, in generating electric power near Rampur, and secondly, in irrigating millions of acres in the plains of the Punjab below. We had passed through the peaceful deodar forests on either side of Rampur, and the splendid limestone cliffs which rise precipitously from them. Just beyond we had passed massive ruins of the so-called Buddhist, but really Hindu, temple, dating about A.D. 700. All the country had been blanketed with snow; the hillsides, forested with thousands of Christmas-trees, glistening in the brilliant sunshine, and the frozen road, had been rattling under the ponies' feet, when gradually the narrow valley opened out, the enclosing hills widened apart, the river, from a rushing torrent, became as placid as the Thames, with numerous long-prowed boats gliding smoothly downwards. The little town of Baramula, and the first distinctive châlet-like, but dirty, shaky habitations of Kashmir; a graceful Hindu temple; fine specimens of the famous chenar-trees; and a typical log bridge came into view; and then, as the hillsides finally parted asunder, the glorious valley itself—a valley on so extensive a scale as really to be

a plain amidst the mountains—was disclosed; and faintly mingling with the cloudless azure of the sky, on the far side stretched the great range of snowy mountains which bound Kashmir on the north, with the Haramokh Peak, 16,900 feet high, standing boldly out thirty-five miles distant immediately in front; and from just beyond Baramula, even Nanga Parbat itself, 26,600 feet, and seventy miles distant, towering nobly over the lower ranges, the solitary representative of the many mountain giants which lay behind.

"Then, as we emerged into the open valley, the snow disappeared, and the first faint signs of spring were visible. All the trees were indeed still bare. Neither on the massive chenar nor on the long lines of poplars which bordered the road continuously from Baramula to Srinagar was there a vestige of a leaf; and the grass was absolutely brown. But in the willows there was just the suspicion of yellow-green. The little leaf-buds were just preparing to burst. On the ground were frequent masses of yellow crocuses and familiar bluebells. Here and there were clumps of violets. Occasionally a tortoise-shell or cabbage-white butterfly would flutter by. Above all, the glorious brilliant sunshine, the open, clear, blue sky, and the soft touch and gentle feel which at noonday replaced the crisp, frosty nip of the morning air gave certain promise of the approach of spring.

"Again, when at length Srinagar, the capital of Kashmir, was reached, and I was back in my much-

INDIAN SHAWL MERCHANTS' SHOPS.

loved garden, still other signs of spring's arrival were evident. Violets, pansies, wall-flowers, narcissi, crocuses, and daisies were out. A few green blades were showing through the brown grass. Rose leaf-buds were bursting. In one garden near, a few apricot blossoms had actually bloomed. And the whole garden was filled with the spring song of the birds lightly turning to thoughts of love—thrushes, minas, sparrows, blue-tits, hoopoes, starlings; bold, familiar crows, and, most delightful of them all, the charming little bulbuls with their coquettish top-knots—the friendly little beings who come confidingly in at the windows, and perch on the curtain rails or chairs, and even on the table to peck sugar from the basin.

" And so for many days the weather continues, the temperature a degree or two below freezing-point at night, and rising to a maximum of 55° in the shade and 105° in the sun in the day-time. Day after day cloudlessly clear. The snowy ranges standing out sharp and distinct. The nearer mountains still covered with snow to within a thousand or two feet of the valley level. In the early morning all the valley bottom glistening silvery white with hoar frost. Then towards noon a curious struggle between summer and winter. The aspect of the country outside the garden entirely winter—leafless trees and frost-withered grass; but in the still air the sun's rays, with daily increasing power, having all the warmth of an early summer day

in England ; and under the noonday sun the mountains fading in a dreamy haze."

Mr. Louis Esson, describing Jaipur, wrote :

"It is all deliciously impossible, this pink city of Jaipur.

"One watches an eternal ballet, an opera-bouffe, an extravaganza.

"It is a go-as-you-please city, with its straight wide streets, lined with buildings all made out of a fantastic pink stone. The shops and houses, the ornamented city gates, the temples, towers, palaces, the Sanscrit College, the Maharaja's theatre, the Palace of the Winds, even the shrines of idols in the street, are alike built of this rose-pink stone.

"Being quite unreal, a fantasy, there is no such thing as proportion ; and when one passes through the high gates whereon pigeons perch, one goes straight back to India of ancient days, when the Aryan clans first spread over the country and conquered the inferior races.

"And whimsical, irresponsible, are the people of this Rajputana town, almost untouched by modernity. They work and loaf carelessly, anywhere, in a booth under a tree, under the shade of a crumbling wall, in tents, in bark humpies, on the sidewalks, on the steps of palaces and temples.

"Gay are the streets with cloths, newly dyed, stretched out in the sun—shawls, rugs, turbans—rich and vivid, orange, purple, ultramarine, vermillion, every

brilliant tint. Wherever one turns there are cloths lying in the streets, hanging from walks and roofs, flashing in the sun.

" Close by, a cage of tigers, pets of the Maharaja ; a street letter-writer shows his papers ; round a temple a money-changer rattles his bag of coins.

" On the sidewalk, thick with dust, are piled up heaps of grain ; pigeons peck at it, goats walk over it ; but, poured out of baskets, the heaps rise higher and higher.

" Two women turn and turn a handle, grinding corn on a stone ; sitting under a tree a man sharpens rusty knives ; mallet in hand, the pastry-cook kneads a kind of paste on a flat stone ; humming, an old woman turns a wooden spinning-wheel.

" Round the steps of a well—a quaint old well, such a one as from which Rebecca herself might have filled her pitcher—a group of women and young girls wait with stone jars at their sides ; silent, picturesque, they watch a naked brown child pour water over his shining body.

" A herd of little donkeys, bowed down and half hidden under their load of faggots, trot patiently along ; with slow, undulating movements camels pass, sinuous beasts with cords through their noses, stretching out snaky necks ; dogs, tired and dispirited, painted blue and pink, sleep in the middle of the road ; and in the open-air bazaars, mingled with the happy-go-lucky people, are goats, sheep, pigeons, and cows, munching slowly bunches of cut grass.

" Here men and animals live on friendly terms. All

alike are poor, half-famished, but all alike have recognized rights, and there is a perfect trust between them. A charming trait of Hinduism is this love of birds and animals. Nobody throws a stone at the pigeons that flock in myriads on the roofs of temples, in niches cut about the city gates, inside the shops and houses, and sometimes form a slate-blue carpet even in the market-place. Nobody kicks a dog, a goat, a stray sheep. People step over them on the sidewalk, and when they are sleeping in the middle of the road, the tongas, or bullock-carts, and the men on horseback, wheel round them. Dotted through the towns are shrines dedicated to their worship—shrines of Hanuman, the monkey general, of Siva's bull, of the cow, of the elephant-trunked Ganesha.

"In the open air, craftsmen bend over jars and trays, and fancy boxes, hammering and chiselling the sight-destroying enamels. They carve coloured marble idols, they embroider silver-spangled slippers, or they weave beautiful rugs and carpets, rich with vegetable dyes. Some of the weavers are children of six or seven, keen-eyed, working at the loom, and calling out all day long they 'have done it,' as an instructor reads out the design."

These two pictures describe the extremes of India, the awful beauty of the great mountain chains, the fantastic allurement of the wonderful cities. Colombo, where east and west meet, and all the vices of all the world flaunt themselves; Bombay and Calcutta, great

marts of European commerce, side by side with the swarming hives of the native population; Delhi, a little tawdry in these modern days, but giving, in the storied stones of the ruins of the old city, knowledge of the successive waves of conquest which spread over India from the mountains in the north and the ocean on the south; Benares, the holy city, swarming with priests and ascetics, traversed ever by the funeral processions of the pious towards the burning *ghats* by the side of the sacred Ganges—all these could exhaust a volume themselves, and yet their stories would be incomplete. From the "steps of Adam," which, legend tells, mark the path of our First Parent from the Island of Ceylon to the mainland of India; past the hot coastal marshes and the central plateau; past, then, the plains, sometimes hot, sandy, sterile, sometimes steamy and covered with jungle, to the mountains which form the roof of the world, every mile of India has some interest of natural beauty, of savage grandeur, or of historic interest.

Nor will space allow of any attempt to describe the minor Asiatic possessions of the Empire: Aden, a mere coaling station; Singapore, a great port of commerce, the centre of Malay States, under our flag, which closely resemble tropical possessions in Africa and Oceania; Hongkong, another great shipping port. These out-posts of Empire, important as they are, must pass with bare mention to allow the traveller to pass on to the last great group of the Empire in the sunny South Seas.

The Indies

APPENDIX

DETAILS of the possessions of the Empire in and around Asia are as follows :

INDIA.

An Empire of which about three-sevenths is governed by native hereditary chiefs under the suzerainty of Britain, and four-sevenths is directly governed by Britain, the power being held by the Viceroy in Council. The Viceroy is nominated by the British Crown. The area directly under British Government is divided into twelve governments, each with a separate Governor and Council. Of these subordinate governors, two—those of Madras and Bombay—are usually nominated by the British Crown, the others by the Viceroy. Some of the native States are almost completely independent as regards their local affairs ; but all are strictly dependent as regards external affairs on the suzerain Power.

Area.—1,773,000 square miles, of which 1,097,000 square miles are under direct British administration, and the balance is made up of native States under British suzerainty. Population, British States, 232,072,000 ; native States, 62,288,000 ; total, 294,360,000.

Climate.—Tropical, except on the highlands.

Chief Products.—Rice, wheat, millet, sugar-cane, cotton, jute, tobacco, tea, coffee, indigo, pastoral products, some mineral products, and many manufactures.

History.—Stretches beyond the memory of man. There was in prehistoric days a great invasion by an Aryan people conquering the original Dravidian population. Alexander the Great invaded India 327 B.C. Mohammedan invasion, A.D. 1001 to 1740. Mogul dynasty founded, 1526. Vasco da Gama, the Portuguese, reached India by sea, May 20, 1498. Francis Drake visited the East Indies, 1578. English

Appendix

East India Trading Company formed, 1599. In 1668 we acquired Bombay. In the eighteenth century we won the supremacy of India from the French. In 1858 the British Crown took over the control of India from the East India Company, this step following the suppression of the Indian Mutiny in 1857.

Aden.

A coaling station on the Arabian coast in control of a Resident who is also commander of the garrison. Aden has two dependencies—the Island of Perim and the Island of Socotra.

Ceylon.

Crown Colony administered by a Governor, and a Legislative Council, chiefly elected.

Area.—25,000 square miles; population 4,504,000.

Chief Products.—Tea, rice, coffee, rubber, pearls, copra, spices.

Climate.—Tropical.

History.—Known to the Greeks, Romans, and Venetians. In 1505 colonized by the Portuguese, and later by the Dutch. In 1795 the British dispossessed the Dutch. In 1815 the native rule of the interior was abolished, and the island became wholly under British rule.

Hongkong.

Crown Colony governed by a Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—With mainland leased territory, 359 square miles; population, 874,000.

Climate.—Subtropical.

There are practically no products of the island, but it is one of the greatest shipping ports of the world.

History.—Ceded to Britain in 1841 by the Chinese. In 1898 there was added to the area of the island colony a small stretch of the mainland coast.

The Indies

North Borneo.

Administered by a court of directors (British North Borneo Company) in London as an independent State under British protection.

Area.—29,000 square miles; population 257,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Coal, manganese, iron, rubber, tobacco, copra.

History.—First settlement by Dutch, 1608. English settlement followed in 1609. British North Borneo Company formed in 1882, and has now full control over North Borneo.

Sarawak.

Governed by a Rajah (who is of British blood) as a State under British Protection.

Area.—50,000 square miles; population, 600,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Rubber, pepper, sago.

History.—In 1842 Sir James Brooke obtained a cession of territory from the Sultan of Brunei, and formed the State of Sarawak. In 1888 Britain took Sarawak under her protection.

Straits Settlements.

Crown Colony of three settlements—Singapore, Penang, and Malacca—governed by Governor and Legislative Council.

Area.—1,600 square miles; population, 883,000.

Climate.—Tropical.

Chief Products.—Tin, sugar, pepper, spices, rubber, tapioca, and rice.

History.—Malacca was taken by the Portuguese in 1511. The Dutch seized it in 1641. Passed into the hands of British in 1824 by treaty. Penang was the first British settlement on

AN INDIAN FRUIT STALL.

the Malayan Peninsula, having been acquired by purchase from the natives in 1786. Singapore was taken possession of in 1819 by Sir Stamford Raffles.

Dependencies of the Straits Settlements are the Dindings, the Cocos Islands, Christmas Island, Labuan (near Borneo), and Brunei (in Borneo), and the Federated Malay States (Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Johore, and Pahang). Some of these are considerable in area and population—the Dindings, 265 square miles; Labuan, 30 square miles; Brunei, 4,000 square miles; the Federated Malay States, 26,000 square miles. The Malay States are nominally independent sultanates, but are actually under the full control of British Government.

Weihaiwei.

A naval base held under lease from China. Governed by a Commissioner. It is to be returned to China when settled government is established in that country.

Area.—285 square miles; population, 154,000.

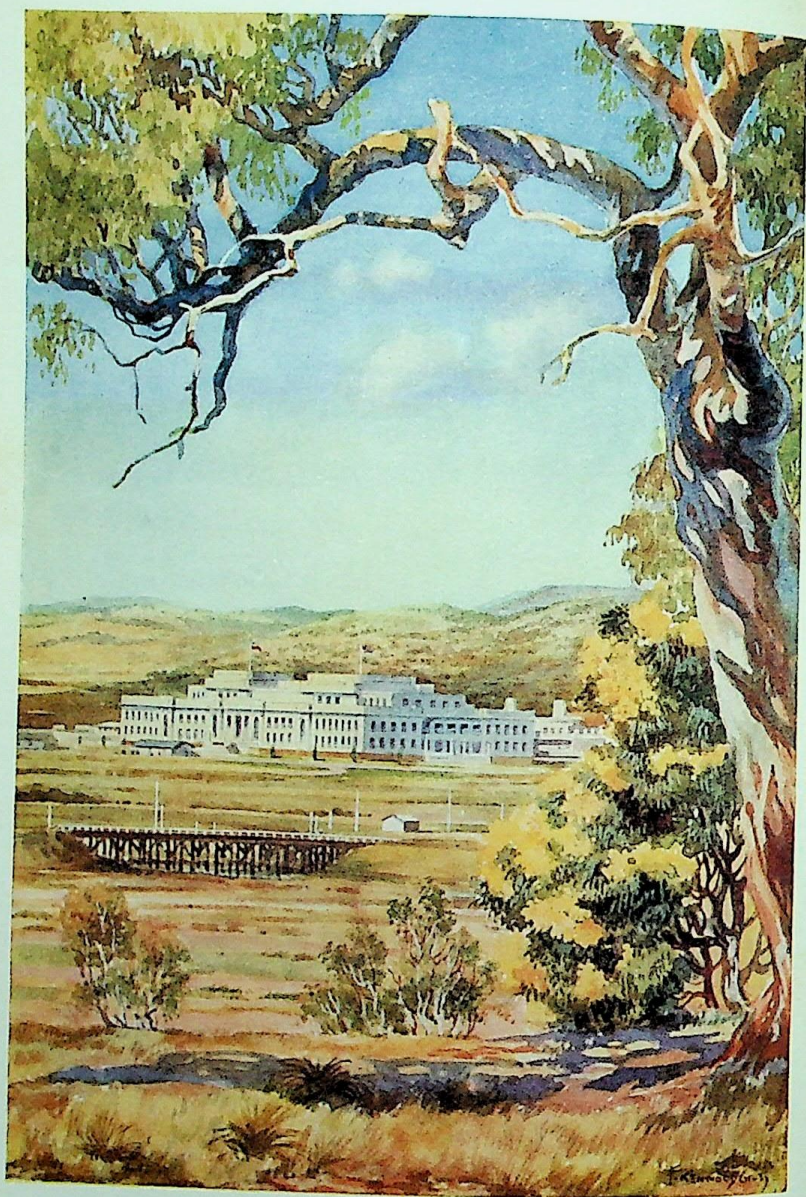
Mandated Territories.

Following on the World War the British Empire was obliged to take the responsibility under Mandate from the League of Nations for vast areas in Asia formerly governed by the Turks. The chief of these territories are:

Palestine.—The Mandate for this Territory provides for the establishment of " a national home for the Jewish people " without prejudice to the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities. It is governed by a High Commissioner and a Commander-in-Chief and an Executive Council.

Area.—About 10,000 square miles; population, 757,000, of whom one-quarter are Jews. The industries are chiefly agricultural.

Trans-Jordan, a stretch of country east of the Jordan and the Dead Sea, north of Arabia and west of Iraq. Area not strictly defined as yet. The country is ruled by an Arab King, but there is a British Resident who acts in conformity with the policy of the High Commissioner for Palestine. The system of British control is similar to that exercised in an Indian Native State.

Iraq (*Mesopotamia*), conquered from the Turks in the World War, has an area of about 116,000 square miles and a population of nearly 3,000,000. It is governed by an Arab King, who is advised by a British High Commissioner, and each Department of State has a British adviser. The British Mandate will come to an end when Iraq is granted membership of the League of Nations.

THE PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, CANBERRA, AUSTRALIA

SECTION V

OCEANIA

CHAPTER I

THE SETTLEMENT OF OCEANIA

In the days when the fabled wealth of the Indies was the magnet to draw men of courage and worth to perilous undertakings by sea and land, there was nothing in the South Seas to attract their greed, and nothing, therefore, to stimulate their curiosity. The Spaniard blundering on America, in his quest for a west passage to the ivory, the gold, and the spices of India, found there a land with more possibilities of plunder than that which he had first sought. He was content to remain, looting the stores of the Mexicans and of the Peruvians for metals, and laying the forests of Central America under contribution for precious woods. He ventured but little westward, and the Hawaiian Islands represented his extreme western limit. Following him for plunder came the English, and they, too, were content to sweep along the western coast of South America without venturing farther towards the unknown west.

From another direction the sea route to India was sought by Portuguese, and Dutch, and English, and French. Groping round the African coast, they came

in time to the land of their desire, and found on the way Java, the Spice Islands, and other rich groups of the Malay Archipelago. But they, just as the Spaniards, did not venture west from South America; and neither Portuguese, Dutch, French, nor English set the course of their vessels south from the East Indies; so Australia remained to them for many years an unknown continent. When at last navigators, more bold or less bound to an immediate greed, touched upon the shores of Australia, or called at the South Sea Islands, they found little that was attractive. In no case had the simple natives won to a greed for gold and silver, and so they had no accumulations of wealth to tempt cupidity. In the case of Australia, the coast line was dour and forbidding, and promised nothing but sterility.

That colonizing period in which the desire for plunder was the chief motive passed away, having spared Oceania. It was thus the fate of Australia, of New Zealand, of most of the islands of Polynesia and Melanesia, to be settled under happier conditions, and to be spared the excesses of cruelty which marked the European invasion of the West Indies and the Americas. The Newest World began its acquaintance with civilization, therefore, under fairly happy auspices.

That despite, there have been some grim tragedies associated with white settlement in Oceania. In one case only has the native race survived to share with

COLLINS STREET, MELBOURNE, AUSTRALIA

the whites equally in the prosperity of civilization. In Tasmania the absolute extermination of the aboriginals tells that even in the nineteenth century the lessons of humanity and mercy had been poorly learned. In Australia the aboriginal population has not been actually exterminated, but it is a poor remnant which survives to-day, to find a tardy effort being made to repair the wrongs of the past. In most of the South Sea Islands under our flag, the natives have had little cause to bless, and much reason to curse, our coming, though nowadays their interests are jealously safeguarded by the orders of the Home Government. In New Zealand, and New Zealand alone, the Maoris, prosperous, happy, sharing fully in the government of the country, prove that it is possible for an aboriginal race to share a land in comfort with white colonists.

But this much may be said as to colonization in Oceania: that the crimes committed against the aboriginals were usually crimes of ignorance and of carelessness, and very rarely were the results of deliberate and official cruelty. There was none of the organized plunder and rapine which marked the white man's course in America and in Africa.

It was not until the middle of the seventeenth century that a scientific expedition brought Oceania before the attention of Great Britain. A transit of Venus across the sun promised to yield valuable knowledge as to the nature of solar phenomena. To observe the transit under the best conditions, astronomers knew

that a station in the South Seas was necessary, and Lieutenant Cook, R.N., an officer who had already distinguished himself in the work of exploration, was entrusted to lead a scientific expedition to Otaheite. Added to his commission was an injunction to explore the South Seas if time and opportunity offered.

Mr. Cook, now become Captain Cook, was of the type which makes time and opportunity. Certainly there was little in the equipment of his expedition to justify an extension of its duties after the transit of Venus had been duly observed. But he took it that his duty was to explore the South Seas, and explore he did, incidentally annexing for the British Empire the Continent of Australia.

That was in 1770. But still there was so little inviting in the prospect of settlement in the South Seas that it was some eighteen years before any effort was made to follow up by colonization this annexation by Captain Cook. When the effort was made, it was not on very dignified lines. The American colonies had at one time served as an outlet for the overflow of the British prisons. The War of Independence had closed that channel. The overcrowding of the British prisons became desperate, and, because it was necessary to find some relief for this—not because it was considered advantageous to populate the new possessions—the First Fleet sailed for the foundation of Australia in 1788.

It is amusing to recall in these days, when emigra-

THE TOWN HALL, SYDNEY, AUSTRALIA

tion to Australia or New Zealand is the dearest hope of so many British citizens, that in the eighteenth century prisoners looked upon a sentence of transportation to Australia as something almost, if not quite, as bad as death. It is amusing also to note that in those days it was considered quite sure that the natural resources of Australia would never be sufficient to maintain a tiny convict settlement, and it was expected that gaoled and gaolers would need always to rely upon the Home Country for a proportion of their food. To-day there is not a single article of common consumption, except tea, which is not bountifully produced in Australia, and no land could face with more equanimity the prospect of being absolutely isolated from the rest of the world.

New Zealand was not used as a penal settlement, and it had to wait for any regular settlement until 1814. Then a generous spirit of social amelioration pervaded some classes in Britain, and it became a fashion to organize "colonies" in the New World, where those to whom the Old World offered but little hope could win the chance of prosperity, and where, too, those of the Old World, who did not find happiness in their own good fortune because of the hardships which others suffered, could find a refuge. These colonies were mostly planted in New Zealand, and in that portion of Australia which is now known as South Australia. Without a doubt they sent a fine type of pioneer to the newest of worlds.

Oceania

The Australasian settlements began to progress decisively when the capacity of these new lands for wool-growing came to be recognized. Soon the number of free settlers was so great that they resented the further influx of criminals from the Home Country, and transportation ceased. The gold discoveries gave the next stimulus to the development of both Australia and New Zealand, and after those discoveries the young nations of the South set themselves to undertake all the tasks of advanced civilization. They were no longer content to be shepherds, farmers, miners alone, but determined to organize manufacturing industries, to weave fabrics, and to forge steel. Along that stage of development they now progress with confident steps.

Politically, the Australasian Dominions have followed very closely the form of government of Great Britain, but the sentiment of the people led to a far more advanced democratic system which has since been copied in most respects by the Mother Country. In New Zealand and Australia the State rests on a basis of absolute adult suffrage, and the Government of the State will admit the validity of no argument against a policy of seeking to establish a "Working's Man Paradise" by paternal legislation. According to the argument of some economists, the social reform legislation so popular in New Zealand and Australia must of necessity lead to disaster, since it transgresses immutable economic laws.

Perhaps so, perhaps not. Voltaire was told at the age of seventy that coffee was poison to him. He argued: "I am seventy. I have drunk coffee since I was seven. It is clearly a very slow poison." Similarly, it is a very slow disaster which is threatened for Australia and New Zealand, and the peoples of those lands seem content to await its advent with cheerfulness. And withal, from the very first, whatever its vagaries, and however crude its early condition was, a spirit of idealism permeated Australian life. Whether consciously or not, Australia seems to have trusted and believed that material prosperity would be added unto the nation which did what it thought to be the right thing. A happy community rather than a rich one has been the aim of public effort—not always, of course, successful, but always well-meaning. Hence the "labour legislation" which has been initiated by all parties in politics at different times; hence the ideal generally maintained, of reserving the land for a white race, even though that meant much sacrifice of the wealth which could be minted from the chains of coolie labour. Other countries used negroes to exploit their tropical lands, imported Chinese coolies to cut railways across mountain chains. How different always the attitude of Australia and New Zealand! The railways—gigantic enterprises for so small a community—have been almost entirely white-built; the great West Australian Goldfields Water Supply—the most daring in the world—was constructed

throughout by white citizens. There is probably no record in history of any other people so strenuously setting aside the easy and profitable path for the sake of idealism.

That idealism shows out constantly in the industrial life of Australia. It is at the root of all "the labour legislation" about which there is so much comment —the legislation which says that the worker's life must be as safe and as happy as possible, even though dividends are not so great.

From Australia and New Zealand, settlement gradually spread to the various island groups of Oceania, and the majority of these are now held under the British flag. It is a matter of shame to have to record that a great deal of white settlement in these South Sea Islands had its first beginning in "blackbirding"—the recruiting of the Kanaka natives for work in the sugar plantations of Queensland and elsewhere. This traffic was very little better than the slave trade which stained the early days of the West Indies and America. Fortunately it has been of late utterly abolished as far as Australia is concerned. Now the small, tropical islands of Oceania are chiefly of interest to the tourist and to the trader in bananas, and in copra, the dried kernel of the coconut, which supplies coconut oil, the great modern base for soap, and still, unfortunately, much favoured as a dressing for the hair by some people.

In most of these Pacific islands the native popula-

tion survives in some strength. But it is difficult to believe that the Kanakas—the generic term for all the slightly varying races of the Pacific Islands—will ever be able to take an active part in any scheme of civilized life. They are cursed by the habits which Nature, in a too generous mood, has taught them. Work was never a necessity in the South Sea Islands before the white man came: a bountiful soil and a genial climate gave bananas, taro, yams, bread-fruit, coco-nuts in profusion, and made clothing unnecessary except as a matter of adornment. The tribes lived lives of graceful ease, amused themselves with swimming, and a little hunting, and tribal warfare. It is almost impossible now to teach them the creed of the new civilization, one of the chief articles of which is the dignity of labour. The melancholy certainty seems to be that the Kanakas will die out, leaving their little Paradises as a heritage to more strenuous peoples.

CHAPTER II

THE BACK-COUNTRY AUSTRALASIAN AND HIS WORK

THERE is a definite new type of British citizen being evolved in Australasia—the peoples of Tasmania, New Zealand, and Australia mix so freely that they are evolving this type between them. A great factor in its production is the man of the " back country "

of Australia, who lives on those ardent plains of fierce sunshine, of electric, "crackling" air, of vast distances. The coastal Australian is an Anglo-Celt, with the changes that a new country, a sunny climate, an open-air life have made on the British type. He and the New Zealander differ from the people of the Home Country in greater keenness, alertness, in greater contempt for conventions. He departs a great deal from what is said to be the American ideal in the fact that the main purpose of his life is to enjoy himself rather than to make money. He takes holidays for all sorts of reasons, and for no reasons at all except sheer joy in life; plays many games with great skill and enthusiasm, and, just as the Romans of old were always willing to welcome a new god, he is always willing to welcome a new game, and cheerfully tries his hand at baseball and lacrosse, as additions to cricket and football. The coastal Australian, in short, is not very distinctive; but the "back-country" Australian is. His conditions make him so.

On those hot plains of Australia, cruel to a first knowledge, very rich in profit and welcome to the man who learns their secrets, most potent of attraction with familiarity and mastery, Nature exacts from man a resolute wooing before she grants one smile of favour. But, once conquered, she responds with most generous lavishness. In return, however, she sets her stamp on these men who come to her favour, and they show that stamp on their faces. Thin, wiry,

with deep-set, peering eyes, they suggest sun-dried men. But whilst leaching out the fat and softness from them, Nature has compensated these Australians with an enduring vitality. No other men probably of the world's peoples can stand such strain of work, of hunger, of thirst. No men have finer nerves, greater courage. They must dice with Death for their lives, time and again, staking all on their endurance, and the chance of the next waterhole being still unparched. This gives them a contempt of danger, and some contempt of life, which shows in a cruel touch in their character.

Imagine a white man who, keeping all his education, and maintaining his sympathy with modern science and modern thought, withal reverts in some characteristics to the type of the Bedouin of the desert, and you have the typical Australian bushman. He is fierce in his friendships, stern in his enmities, passionately fond of the horse, so contemptuous of dwellings that he will often refuse to sleep in them, Arabian in his hospitality, fatalistic in his philosophy. He has been known to inflict torture on a native whom he suspects of concealing the whereabouts of a waterhole, and yet will almost kill himself to get help for a mate in need. He is so independent that he hates working for a "boss," and will rarely take work on wages, preferring to live as his own master, by hunting or fossicking, or by undertaking contract work for forest clearing. There is material for a great warrior nation in

these bushmen, with their capacity for living anyhow, their deadliness as shots, their perfect command of the horse, their stoic cruelty which would enable them to face any hardship without flinching, and to inflict any revenge without remorse.

The Australian back-country man has learned from his plains a habit of silence. His taciturnity is almost incredible. Two mates will journey together day after day with but the bare exchange of a word or two, except, perhaps, for a very brief "yarn" over the camp fire with the final pipe before turning in for the night.

The back country, however, has its privileged talkers—the bards of the tribes, they might be called. One meets these at the great camps, formed when the back-country men assemble for sheep-shearing. In most shearers' camps there is a great talker, who is expected to amuse his mates with humorous extravagancies of falsehood. It is not lying for deceit's sake, but "gasconnading" with an artistic, a poetic, motive. Sometimes two humorists get together, and will compete in extravagance and humour.

One will tell of his mate Tom, who was an awfully clever fellow, but ruined by having too big ideas. He had noticed that the alligator laid 300 or so eggs at a sitting, and he started an alligator farm with the idea of crossing alligators with black Orpingtons. Thus he hoped to get a good type of laying fowl and a fine type of table alligator.

Another caps this with a kelpie story (the kelpie

CARVED MAORI HOUSE, OHINEMUTO, NEW ZEALAND

is the usual sheep-dog of the Australian, and gets to a marvellous cunning in rounding-up sheep). He had a mate whose kelpie was the best ever seen. Once his mate went down to the city to stay, and, going to bed, was annoyed to find—well, insects in possession before him. But he soon settled that difficulty. He whistled for his faithful kelpie, who promptly yarded all the noxious insects out of the bedroom and left him to sleep in peace.

Sheep-farming is the staple industry of the back-country man both in Australia and New Zealand. There were sheep before Australasia was known of, just as there were brave men before Agamemnon, but the fine wool sheep of to-day is practically an Australian production—one might almost say invention.

Australia started its national life as a reformatory. With the "First Fleet" of prisoners and their guards there went a few sheep. Unlike the human exiles, they were not sent out for reformation. Yet they were destined to found practically a new race of sheep, vastly more valuable than any that had gone before them.

The picked rams which first went to Australia would yield about 3½ pounds of coarse wool. The picked ram of a first-class Australian stock to-day yields up to 40 pounds of fine wool, and the average yield of a decent flock is 8 pounds per sheep. With this great increase in quantity, there has been an even greater improvement of quality. Australian merino

wool is finer, more elastic, longer in staple, than any wool ever dreamed of a century ago, and its production alone makes possible some of the exquisite fabrics which display the triumphant luxury of modern civilization. Nearly 90,000,000 sheep are pastured in Australia to-day, and the pastoral industry brings to Australia's population a great flow of wealth from abroad, feeding the wool textile mills not only of Great Britain, but of Asia, Europe, and America.

Of much more than Australian moment was the growth of this grand wool industry. It gave to England a new source of wealth. Before the days of Australia, Spain was looked upon as the only country in the world which could produce fine wool. Spain of that day was not willing that British looms should have any advantage of her production, and the British woollen manufacturing industry, confined to the use of coarser staples, languished.

Now, Australasia—and Australasia practically alone—produces the fine wool of the world, and the "squatters" are the chief pillars of Australasian prosperity, and the dominant types of Australasian character.

The squatter earned his name from the fact that in the early days he pushed out with his flocks and herds beyond the borders of then known civilization, and "squatted" where he listed. His title to the land was his use of it. As settlement progressed that free and easy method of occupying the country had to give way to more elaborated and not, in all cases,

such satisfactory tenures. The squatter, however, remained still in title a squatter, though he was now a tenant of the Crown on a long lease, or an actual freeholder by right of grant or purchase.

Vast are the areas now held by pastoralists in Australia. In the Northern Territory, where primitive conditions still rule, some of the runs are as big as the Principality of Wales. In New Zealand, where sheep are farmed as much for the meat as for the wool, the "runs," as they are called, are smaller.

Generous hospitality marks the Australian wool-grower. The stranger within his gates may be assured of a lordly welcome, which stretches even to the loan or gift of fresh horses to resume his journey. This gracious custom of hospitality—born of the days when travelling was rare and difficult—now dies reluctantly as the railroad carries on its campaign against primitive conditions.

The days of hand-shearing are almost over in Australasia. All but small sheds have sheep-shearing machines, driven by steam or electricity. Whether the shearer uses hand-shears or machines, the work is most arduous. A tradition of the industry, having its basis in the fact that the sooner the wool—once it has reached maturity—is off the sheep the better, makes great speed an essential.

Yet, also, great care is necessary, for the wool must be cut at one snip as close to the skin as possible—the longer the staple the more valuable the wool—

and the sheep, of course, must not be injured. A few scratches and cuts they have to put up with in patience; but a shearer who seriously wounded many sheep would be discharged as incompetent.

Marvellous is the quick skill of these shearers. To get through 100 sheep in a day of eight hours is a fair average for good shearers. Some men can double that score. And the price per hundred is very generous. So the shearers' earnings are high. Deservedly, for the Australasian shearer is probably the prize workman in the world for speed and skill combined.

Next to the sheep-men, the two most typical classes in New Zealand and Australia are the diggers and the "cockies," the latter being the name given to the small farmer. The digger comprises many classes, from the hard-up digger for Kauri gum in a New Zealand swamp, whose find will have no more dignified fate than to enter into the composition of carriage varnish, to the aristocrat of the calling, the prospector for gold, who pervades the whole area of Australasia. But one characteristic all diggers have: they object to work for wages, and are always dreaming of the fortunes which they will make by lucky finds. Indeed, when the digger, forced by hard luck, takes to wage-work in a great gold, or silver, or copper mine, he becomes in the common language a "miner." The "diggers" are the heirs to the independent industry of the men who came to Australia and New

Zealand, in the days of the great gold rushes when alluvial gold was to be got at or near to the surface.

The social and political life both of Australia and New Zealand is profoundly affected by these back-country men and their almost fierce independence. It is they who are in the main responsible for the peculiarly advanced politics of our Southern Pacific dominions, and for the habit of social thought which regards both birth and riches as of little account in making an estimate of a man. The "back-country" men are in numbers a small proportion of the Australasian population, but their influence is far greater than their numbers would suggest.

CHAPTER III

THE MARTIAL SPIRIT IN AUSTRALASIA

Circumstances have made the young democracies of Australia and New Zealand distinctly martial in spirit. From the first the New Zealand colonists had to face the task of withstanding the Maori tribes, and to do this it was necessary at times to have the aid of the Imperial forces. This gave at once a sense of gratitude and an appreciation of the necessities of self-defence. After the era of the Maori wars, New Zealand was acutely conscious of its isolated position, in case of a great European struggle setting various Powers again to the game of beggar-my-neighbour. For it is

an article of faith with every genuine New Zealander that his country is the most desirable place on earth, and he naturally foresees that a European nation falling out with the United Kingdom would bend its first energies towards the acquisition of New Zealand; and the people of the Dominion are resolved that the acquisition will be no easy task.

In Australia the chief prompting of defence fervour has been the fear of Asiatic colonization. "White Australia" is an ideal passionately upheld. The immigration of coloured people, which would affect the purity of the white race, is absolutely forbidden. But Australia fears that one day it will be necessary to uphold by force of arms those restrictions which are now peacefully maintained under the shadow of the British power.

In both countries, too, there is a natural feeling of loyal gratitude to the Mother Country which inspires a wish to participate as heartily as possible in the work of Imperial defence. For over a century these Australasian Dominions enjoyed peace and full freedom from outside attack, because of the *mana** of the British. So we find in Australia and New Zealand, before the outbreak of the World War threatened the existence of the Empire, laws compelling the whole male population to be trained to the use of arms, and great sums being devoted to the building of ships for the Imperial Navy

* Mana, a Maori word, signifying "proved might and courage."

The Martial Spirit in Australia

Australia and New Zealand entered the World War with a stark enthusiasm of patriotism, and won immortal renown for steadfastness and courage. The Anzac forces promptly swept the Germans out of the Pacific; gave effective help at sea and in the air; took part in the land campaigns in Africa, Asia, and Europe; sent in all 329,682 troops abroad; and incurred a war expenditure of £288,000,000.

This volume cannot attempt any detailed record of Australasian participation in the war, of the deeds of heroism in Gallipoli, Palestine, and France. Suffice it to say that in every field of effort, military, naval, and economic, the young nations of the British race proved themselves worthy of their ancestry. Though conscription was never sanctioned, the contribution of men for the fighting line was fully up to the Empire average. Though losses were severe in what the politician chiefly responsible for it has called "the gamble" of Gallipoli, there was no murmuring. Though to do so involved heavy economic losses, all enemy trade relations were not merely suspended, but cut off for good. When the war had been brought to a victorious end, they cheerfully shouldered the burden of their war debts, not following the example of Great Britain's European allies of suggesting remissions or postponing payment. To put it in a sentence, the Australasians behaved like Britons.

Perhaps the cruel ordeal of the World War might have been spared to mankind if Germany could have foreseen

that Australia alone would contribute to the defence of the Empire an army greater in numbers than the British Regular Army at the outbreak of hostilities, and a naval force stronger than the German fleet in the Pacific!

I had no opportunity of serving with the "Anzacs," but saw a great deal of them on the Somme battlefield when they were neighbours to the British Division in which I was with the Royal Artillery. After I had been too much crippled with wounds for further work in the line, and was promoted (or otherwise, as one looks at it) to the Staff at G.H.Q., Montreuil, I was able to judge how the British High Command regarded the men from the South Pacific.

There was, at G.H.Q., far more talk of the Anzacs than of their fellow Colonials, the Canadians. They seemed to have more dramatic interest. Their rakish hats challenged notice, and their rakish actions. Almost every day there was some fresh yarn of the Anzacs, a yarn of some fine feat told admiringly, a yarn of some classic bit of impudence told tolerantly. One tells a tale of the Anzacs' curious ideas of discipline in rest camps. Another caps this with the reminder that the Australian corps has the best Salvage Record in the Army—that is to say, is the most industrious in rag-picking, shell-case gathering, waste-paper collecting, and so on. "I don't wonder," is the retort; "they're always after records. They'd go over and raid the Boche trenches for salvage sooner than play second fiddle."

AT THE HEAD OF LAKE TE ANAU NEW ZEALAND.

The Martial Spirit in Australia

Discipline in rest camps was not the strongest point in the Anzac Corps, but there could be no unfavourable criticism of their "battle discipline." That was near to perfection. Every man seemed to move with an understanding of the general plan and of how to adapt himself to the changing circumstances of the battlefield.

From the "back country" Australians and New Zealanders were recruited very effective snipers, men who were deadly shots with the rifle, and who would work as a rule not from the trenches but from hidden lairs in No-Man's-Land, taking with them provisions for a couple of days, including a supply, not of water, but of cold tea.

In the Palestine campaign the Australians were of special value, as the heat of the climate had little terror for them. Before the World War it was accepted that no white men could live during summer in the Jordan Valley, which even the Arabs deserted then. But Australian troops held the Jordan Valley all through the summer of 1917.

Of course, Australia can offer no climatic conditions quite comparable with the Jordan Valley, where the soil is made up of stones, scorpions and alkali dust, and the air is acrid as well as fiercely hot. But men inured to the heat of inland Australia were better able than others to withstand conditions around Jericho: and to them the Sinai Desert was quite a familiar climate.

Whenever at a gathering of British officers anyone ventured to recall some instance in which his *amour propre*

had been wounded by the Anzacs, there were at hand others to cite cases of splendid daring and endurance.

The British officer had really a very soft spot in his heart for the Anzacs.

The Anzac striding along—or limping—with rakish hat and challenging glance, for the first time brought Australasia actually home to the Mother Country. These Australasians, the men of the Bush, were as remarkable, as significant almost, as the Dacians in the army of another Imperial nation two thousand years ago. Easily could they be picked out. They walked with a slightly obvious swagger. When they were awed a little it was a point of honour not to show it. When they were critical a little it peeped out. Two by two they kept one another in countenance and were fairly comfortable. Catch one alone and you might see in his eyes a hunger for a mate, a need for some other Anzac. For all his *bravura* air, the Anzac had no great self-confidence; and he had a child's shy fear of making himself ridiculous by a false step. The same fear made him difficult to know. He would often set up, as a protective barrier against a real knowledge of him, a stubborn taciturnity, or a garrulous flow of what Australasians call "skite" and Londoners call "swank." About this an illustrative story, which is welcomed as "quite Australian." When, during the Boxer War, the Australian gunboat *Protector* arrived in Chinese waters, the British Admiral went on board to pay his compliments, and was not

stinting in praise of Australian military and naval prowess. Thereupon the Australian band is said to have struck up with a tune from "The Belle of New York": "Of course *you* can never be like us."

When the Dominion and British troops were in contact, tidal currents of knowledge flowed to and fro which left both the gainers. Points which had been particular property became common; regarding economy in the use of the water-bottle, the art of making a bed in a shell-hole, informal methods of acquiring horses, the best tracks towards the soft side of Ordnance, the true dignity of salutes, sniping as a sport, the unpatriotism of recklessness, and other matters. Slang was pooled and trench language much enriched. In all things the essential kinship of the British race was disclosed.

By sea, as well as by land, the Australasians did their duty. The prowess of the Australian Fleet was worthy of the Empire's naval history; and it is well to note that it worked in cordial co-operation with the Japanese Allied Fleet; no questions of racial differences arose.

CHAPTER IV

THE AUSTRALASIAN IN LIGHTER MOOD

Any account of Australasia that refused attention to the sports and pastimes of these new sunny lands would be patently incomplete. Australasia, indeed, has so advertised itself by its pre-eminence in sport that very many people have the idea that no work at all

is done in the Dominions of the South Pacific, but that the inhabitants have in some wise learned the secret of producing wealth without work, and spend all their time at cricket, football, horse-racing, swimming, rowing, and the like. That idea would be incorrect. The Australasian plays hard and plays well; but it is after working hard and working well. His frequent holidays are nobly earned, and then, with strenuous desire to excel, he devotes his leisure to winning pre-eminence in athletic games.

In the field of inter-Empire and international sport the Australians have won many laurels. Australia competes with the Mother Country for the cricket championship, New Zealand for the football championship. In lawn-tennis, swimming, boxing, rowing, these new British nations have won many championships against the rest of the world. In some forms of sport they have established new standards which have been imitated elsewhere, and have invented a new football game.

But it is in amusements which cannot be put to international test that the people of the sunny South Seas get the greatest part of their pleasure. Aquatic sports are in particular favoured, and in that regard the white colonists probably owe a great deal to the example of the original natives of Oceania.

In the South Sea Islands the natives are as much at home in the water as on the land. Babies swim before they can walk, and children play about in the

ocean, for hours at a time, with just as much joy as English children would sport in a meadow. The traveller across the Pacific can at Fiji and other places test the native swimmers. He will find his steamer besieged by a shoal of little native children swimming about the vessel's sides, and clamouring "Penny, penny!" Let him throw a penny into the water, and half a dozen of the nearest natives will dive down and get it before it reaches the bottom. The lucky one comes up with the coin proudly displayed in his hand. Thence it goes into his mouth, and he clamours again "Penny, penny!" American millionaires and other such wasteful folk throw silver coins. But the native child is quite satisfied with a penny as the price of his dive. But throw a halfpenny, and the boy who recovers it will, on reaching the surface, give you the pained glance of a cabby who has got just his legal fare.

I saw one little native at Fiji disgorging nine pennies from his mouth when he climbed up from the water on to the Suva wharf. And he could still clamour "Penny, penny," and dive for more. But the boat had come into the wharf, and the passengers were too busy getting ready to land to throw out any more coins.

Perhaps it is partly because of these wonderful swimmers being so near at hand that the white children of Australia and New Zealand are so fond of the water. Almost every Australian child can swim. In

the public schools swimming is taught, and on two afternoons in the week the scholars are taken down to a sea bath for a swim, wherever that is possible. Through much bathing in a sunny climate the young Australian often gets tanned to the colour of an Arab. He likes that. To be the brownest boy on the beach when a school is stripped for bathing is to be a proud soul.

An amusement which has sprung up lately in Australia on the sea-coast, and which promises much to improve the physique of the race, since it is so largely favoured by the feminine half of the community, is surf-bathing. There is nothing exactly like Australian surf-bathing anywhere else in the world. The beaches of the Australian Continent and of New Zealand are magnificent, stretching creamy curves in length from one to ninety miles. The tidal rise and fall is slight over all the shore, and the beaches shelve somewhat steeply. On these fine sands, dazzling in colour, come rolling in the waves of great oceans, the Pacific Ocean on one side and the Indian Ocean on the other.

Around Sydney, the home of surf-bathing, from which centre it is gradually spreading round the whole ring of the continent, the popular beaches have many thousands of bathers at all hours of the day. Both sexes bathe together, decorous costume being insisted upon. Australian surf-bathing is not a matter of tiptoeing over wet strands and through shallow ponds.

It is a standing up to great breakers of ocean water, champagned to foam as they break their crests; and giving to the meeting body mighty thumps, massaging and bracing the muscles delightfully. The European visitor, as a rule, first looks askance at this sort of surf-bathing. Once persuaded to try it, and he (or she) wishes to live by a Pacific beach all the days of life for the sheer delight of the surf.

From the black natives of the Pacific Islands (who are known as Kanakas) the Australians have learned many new strokes in swimming, which fact partly accounts for the wonderful feats of the swimming champions who have come from the Antipodes. But the Kanaka swimmers, curiously enough, though they can swim about all day, cannot beat the best white swimmers in a speed race. They have not the pluck or the stamina.

But after all, the picnic is the national amusement of Australasia. The word picnic exists in Great Britain, and the inhabitants of the Mother Country are under the delusion that they have "picnics" here. A little experience of an Australian or New Zealand picnic would soon dispel that delusion. In those lands of lots of room it is possible to get out into the wild forest quite easily from almost every city, by walking, by a short tram-ride, or a boat journey. The true picnic-party makes for some wild spot—a beach, or a waterfall in the Bush, or the bank of a stream. It is necessary that a fire should be made,

water boiled for tea, perhaps meat or fish broiled. The idea is to get as near as possible to actual wild-life conditions.

A picnic may represent an afternoon's dash into one of the solitudes of Nature with afternoon tea made by a little fire in the Bush ; or a whole day's excursion ; or a week's or a month's camp, with tents or the shelter of a cave. It is in its way a fine school of self-reliance. People learn from the picnic habit to find their way about rough country, to prepare and cook food, to improvise shelter against storms, and generally to get some acquaintance with wild life.

Obviously a picnic on the Thames with a motor launch and a well-fitted cook's galley ; or even in an English wood, with the lighting of fires prohibited in most places, and real gipsying impossible, does not come under the same category as this Australasian picnic.

The love of the open-air life makes the man used to Australasian life take to some curious occupations. You will find Australians and New Zealanders earning adventurous livelihoods in the Amazon forests, in the far interior of China, and anywhere else where a love of danger and a capacity for enduring hardships promise to earn good rewards. I remember well encountering one such hardy soul whose occupation in life was hunting butterflies in the South Seas.

When a single butterfly is worth £500, hunting butterflies becomes a " big " sport—in the financial

DINNER-TIME AT KWATO, PAPUA.

sense at any rate. New Guinea, the Solomons, the New Hebrides are the homes of the most exquisite birds and butterflies of the world. From these islands comes the bird-of-paradise, which, in the old days, the Dutch traders of the East Indies brought to Europe with its legs cut off, telling the story that it never alighted, but floated always in the air, sleeping and waking. In these islands, also, are to be found butterflies whose wonderful colouring and magnificent size make even the bird-of-paradise seem inferior in beauty.

To get specimens of these butterflies is the desire of every collector; but it is a desire which only a rich man can gratify. The haunts of the beautiful insects are in the midst of tropical jungles and swamps. The hunter must march for days, for weeks, perhaps for months, through forests where every step is hindered by lawyer vines (a tangling, irritating, hindering creeper: why it is called the "lawyer" vine will be obvious); where the sun never penetrates with his rays, but is always manifest in a dank, noisome heat; where deadly miasmas of fever lurk, and head-hunting cannibals have their lairs. He must have with him a great train of native bearers to carry food supplies, hunting gear, and preserving accessories. The work, at once so expensive and so dangerous, explains why £500 has been paid for a single specimen of a Solomon Islands butterfly, and £15 a pair is quite a usual rate for certain varieties.

The sago swamps inland of New Guinea and of

the Solomon Islands are the chief haunts of rare butterflies, and the chief field for the hunter. They are dismally unhealthy, and malaria is certain to visit the hunter's camp; but that is all part of the game. The butterfly-hunter whom I met had a regular commission from Mr. Lionel Rothschild, the greatest collector in the world, to explore the tropical islands around Australia for rare insects. "A bug-hunter," he calls himself, and he has been bug-hunting for over twelve years. Practically all that time was spent in the forest and swamp in pursuit of lepidoptera. A year ago, during one of his short visits to civilization, Mr. Meek (most inappropriate name for a courageous man who is wont to plunge into the thick of cannibal country, accompanied only by natives who are themselves cannibals, and reliant just on "nerve" to come out safely) chatted to me of his work.

"I keep my own vessel, of course, to get from island to island," said he. "It would mean a great waste of time to depend on occasional copra boats. Having picked on my spot, the boat is drawn up in a sheltered nook, and I march inland with my bearers. Usually I need about thirty, sometimes more. There are two types of country which are good for butterflies—swamp land and heavy forest land, the more thickly timbered the better. Having picked on a good spot, the march is stopped and we collect. The natives with butterfly nets do the actual work of getting in the lepidoptera. I stay in the camp and classify

and preserve the specimens. By night I use acetylene and magnesium flash lamps to attract the night moths, which are also most rare and valuable.

"To keep the larder filled is also part of my work. Of course, the natives must not be trusted with guns. You see, I am the only white man in the camp, perhaps a fortnight's march from the coast; and I have to take precautions that they do not take a fancy to my head.

"The natives are pretty reliable if you are firm and just. You seldom have any trouble with your bearers. But the tribes through which you pass sometimes make trouble. They will kill a few of your bearers now and again—for the larder, I presume. No, I can't honestly tell you of any 'narrow escapes.' In a sense it is a 'narrow escape' all the time. You must keep your nerve and a tight hold on the natives, and you are safe enough. Let your nerve fail, and it is fatal. In New Guinea the hillmen are more honest than the coastmen, who are given to pilfering.

"You rather wonder at my occupation. Now, it is a curious thing that the natives sympathize with it much more than they do with hunting for gold. They can better understand a man wanting beautiful birds and butterflies than wanting gold. Really, too, I think often they are right. That's how I feel, anyhow, when, with a camp pitched, I find that I am on a good "reef" of butterflies, rare specimens coming in every hour, and my collecting cases rapidly filling. Among the natives the old currency used to be feathers—the

plumes of the bird-of-paradise and other rare birds. These were much coveted by the chiefs for their ceremonial head-dress, and so passed as money. No, butterflies never became currency. Too fragile, I suppose; a purse full of butterflies would be a rather difficult proposition for a native to wear in his ear or in his hair."

The next I heard of the inaptly named Mr. Meek, he was at Port Moresby (British Papua), collecting native bearers for a plunge into some new country near German New Guinea. "Bug-hunting," he then wrote, was a life that he would never care to give up whilst there were collectors willing to pay huge prices for specimens.

* * * * *

Fitly, perhaps, this Peep at the Empire can close with a glance at the butterfly-hunter—very typical of the spirit which has made the Empire.

APPENDIX

The details of the Oceanic part of the Empire are as follows:

Australia.

Commonwealth of Australia, self-governing Dominion, consisting of six States united in a federation. Each of the States has a Governor representing the Crown, and (with the exception of Queensland, which has only one House) a Parliament of two Houses for the control of State affairs. The Federal Parliament controls defence, customs and excise, immigration, foreign affairs, the post-office, and many other matters. It consists of the Governor-General, representing the King, the

Senate, and the House of Representatives. Both these Houses are elected by full adult suffrage.

Area.—2,974,581 square miles; population, 6,139,882.

Chief Products.—Wool, wheat, gold, copper, silver, coal, tin, sugar, maize, wine, butter.

Climate.—Ranges from temperate to tropical.

History.—Discovered by various Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and English navigators during the seventeenth century. On August 23, 1770, Captain Cook took possession of the eastern coast on behalf of Britain. The western coast was not formally annexed until 1829 by Captain Fremantle. January 26, 1788, Captain Phillip founded Sydney, the first British settlement in Australia. Subsequently the various Australian States were formed, and each eventually obtained responsible government. On January 1, 1901, these States were united as the Commonwealth of Australia.

Dependencies of Australia are:

Territory of Papua, a Territory held by Australia for the British Crown. It is a portion of New Guinea. Papua is governed by a Governor and a Legislative Council. The Australian Government has the right of veto over all ordinances of the Council.

Area.—300,000 square miles. Population: white, 1,452; native, 274,000.

Chief Products.—Copra from coconuts, rubber, gold.

Climate.—Tropical.

History.—Discovered in 1511 by Antonio de Abrea. In 1883 the colony of Queensland annexed the whole of the Island of New Guinea to the British Crown. This action was repudiated by the Mother Country. On November 6, 1884, the British Government established a Protectorate over the south-east coast of New Guinea, the present territory of Papua. On September 1, 1906, the control of Papua was passed over to the Commonwealth of Australia.

Oceania

Minor dependencies of Australia are Norfolk Island (settled by Britain in 1788, and notable for being in 1856 fixed as the home for the Pitcairn Islanders, descendants of the mutineers of the *Bounty*), and Lord Howe Island, settled in 1833. The population of Norfolk Island is 717 and of Lord Howe Island 120.

New Zealand.

The Dominion of New Zealand is a self-governing Dominion, controlled by a Parliament consisting of a Governor representing the King, a Legislative Council, and a House of Representatives. Both Houses are elected by adult suffrage. The Maori (native) population has full civil rights, and returns four members to Parliament, and is represented in the Cabinet.

Area.—104,751 square miles; population, 1,437,167.

Chief Products.—Wool, frozen meat, gold, coal, timber, butter, wheat, oats.

Climate ranges from cold temperate to warm temperate.

History.—Discovered in 1642 by the Dutch navigator Tasman. Visited in 1769 by Captain Cook. Regular settlement by British colonists began in 1814. In 1840 the Maori chiefs ceded the islands to the British Crown under the Treaty of Waitangi. Wars with the Maoris lasted from 1845 until 1870. But an excellent feeling between the two races now exists. New Zealand was at first a dependency of New South Wales. In 1842 it became a separate colony. In 1852 full responsible government was granted.

New Zealand has control, as dependencies, of the Kermadec Islands, the Cook Islands, and other small groups. The Cook Islands were annexed by Britain in 1888. In 1903 they were transferred to New Zealand. The chief products are copra and semi-tropical fruits. The largest of the islands has a population of 2,500.

Appendix

Fiji.

Crown Colony, governed by a Governor (who is also High Commissioner for the Pacific) and a Legislative Council. The natives are allowed a great deal of control over affairs of local government.

Area.—7,400 square miles ; population, 157,266.

Chief Products.—Sugar, copra, bananas, pineapples, maize.

Climate.—Tropical.

History.—Discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman in 1643. Visited by Captain Cook, 1769. Missionaries settled in Fiji in 1835. Group offered to Britain by the native King Thakombau in 1859 : refused. In 1871 English settlers set up a constitutional Government under Thakombau. In 1874 Britain took over the islands.

Western Pacific.

Under the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific are placed all the British islands in the Western Pacific not under the authority of the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand, or the Colony of Fiji. The principal groups are :

Tonga or Friendly Islands ; population, 21,000.

Union Group ; population, 1,000.

Ellice and Gilbert Groups ; population, 30,000.

Solomon Islands (portion only held by the British).

Santa Cruz Islands.

New Hebrides (control shared with France).

Pitcairn Island, occupied in 1780 by mutinous seamen from H.M.S. *Bounty*, who brought wives from Otaheite.

The chief product of all the Western Pacific Islands is copra. The climate is in all cases tropical.

Oceania

Mandated Territories.

Under Australian administration is the Territory of New Guinea, formerly German New Guinea, conquered by the Australian Forces in 1914, and now held by Australia under Mandate of the League of Nations. This Territory consists of part of the mainland of Papua, the Bismarck Archipelago, and some of the Solomon Islands. Its total area is over 100,000 square miles. Non-native population about 3,000: native population about 378,000. The Territory is governed by a Civil Administrator.

Another South Pacific Mandated Territory is Nauru, conquered from the Germans in 1914, administered by Great Britain, Australia and New Zealand jointly. It has important phosphate deposits.

Western Samoa, formerly German Territory, but conquered in 1914, is now a Mandated Territory under the control of New Zealand. It is governed by a Civil Administrator who is assisted by a Legislative Council, the majority of which is official. The Samoan natives are to a large extent granted rights of local self-government. The area is about 1,250 square miles and the population about 40,000.

Billing and Sons Ltd., Printers, Guildford.